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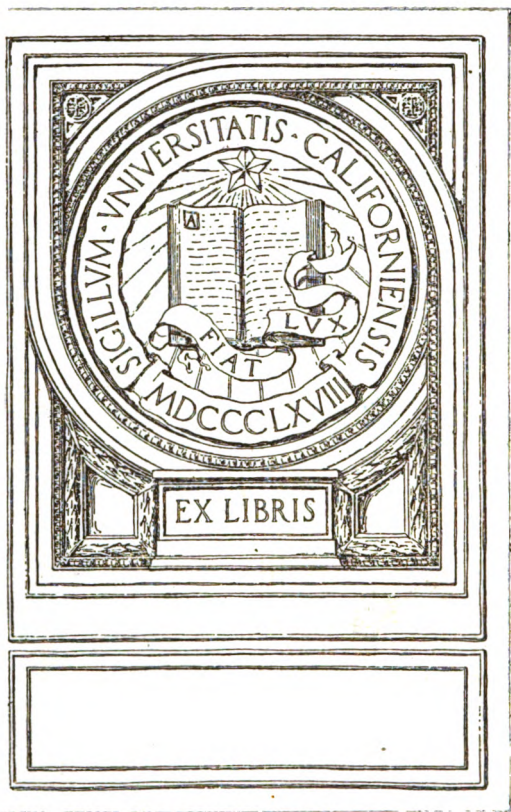


PEACE HANDBOOKS

VOL. XVII

FRENCH AFRICAN
POSSESSIONS

1920



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PEACE HANDBOOKS

Issued by the Historical Section
of the Foreign Office

VOL. XVII

FRENCH AFRICAN POSSESSIONS

100. FRENCH WEST AFRICA (GENERAL)

101. FRENCH MOROCCO

102. SENEGAL

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105. DAHOMEY

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107. UPPER SENEGAL AND NIGER

108. FRENCH EQUATORIAL AFRICA

109. FRENCH SOMALILAND

LONDON:
H.M. STATIONERY OFFICE.

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Editorial Note.

IN the spring of 1917 the Foreign Office, in connection with the preparation which they were making for the work of the Peace Conference, established a special section whose duty it should be to provide the British Delegates to the Peace Conference with information in the most convenient form—geographical, economic, historical, social, religious and political—respecting the different countries, districts, islands, &c., with which they might have to deal. In addition, volumes were prepared on certain general subjects, mostly of an historical nature, concerning which it appeared that a special study would be useful.

The historical information was compiled by trained writers on historical subjects, who (in most cases) gave their services without any remuneration. For the geographical sections valuable assistance was given by the Intelligence Division (Naval Staff) of the Admiralty; and for the economic sections, by the War Trade Intelligence Department, which had been established by the Foreign Office. Of the maps accompanying the series, some were prepared by the above-mentioned department of the Admiralty, but the bulk of them were the work of the Geographical Section of the General Staff (Military Intelligence Division) of the War Office.

Now that the Conference has nearly completed its task, the Foreign Office, in response to numerous enquiries and requests, has decided to issue the books for public use, believing that they will be useful to students of history, and to business men and travellers. It is hardly necessary to say that some of the subjects dealt with in the series have not in fact come under discussion at the Peace Conference; but, as the books treating of them contain valuable information, it has been thought advisable to include them.

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It must be understood that, although the series of volumes was prepared under the authority, and is now issued with the sanction, of the Foreign Office, that Office is not to be regarded as guaranteeing the accuracy of every statement which they contain or as identifying itself with all the opinions expressed in the several volumes; the books were not prepared in the Foreign Office itself, but are in the nature of information provided for the Foreign Office and the British Delegation.

The books are now published, with a few exceptions, substantially as they were issued for the use of the Delegates. No attempt has been made to bring them up to date, for, in the first place, such a process would have entailed a great loss of time and a prohibitive expense; and, in the second, the political and other conditions of a great part of Europe and of the Nearer and Middle East are still unsettled and in such a state of flux that any attempt to describe them would have been incorrect or misleading. The books are therefore to be taken as describing, in general, *ante-bellum* conditions, though in a few cases, where it seemed specially desirable, the account has been brought down to a later date.

G. W. PROTHERO,

General Editor and formerly

Director of the Historical Section.

January, 1920.

*HANDBOOKS PREPARED UNDER THE DIRECTION OF THE
HISTORICAL SECTION OF THE FOREIGN OFFICE.—No. 100*

FRENCH WEST AFRICA

LONDON:
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I. POLITICAL HISTORY

CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY

- 1895 Decree of June 16, instituting a Government-General of West Africa.
- 1902 Decree of October 1, reconstituting Government under a Governor-General.
- 1902-4 Reorganization effected by Governor-General Roume.
- 1904 Decree of October 18, definitely forming Government-General as at present constituted.
- 1909 Modification of central administration by abolition of the Secretariat-General.
- 1910 Extension of civil government to Timbuktu and other territories on right bank of Niger.
- 1910 Modification of government of military territory of Niger.

i. *Formation of Government-General*

THE penetration of West Africa by the French was carried out from four different bases on the sea coast separated by intervening portions of foreign territory, and it was therefore at first impossible effectively to weld the different colonies into a single whole. A Government-General was indeed nominally created in 1895; but the only result was that the Governor of Senegal was invested with a vague and ineffectual control over the Governors of the other colonies, and over the military and civil officials in the French Sudan. In 1902, however, definite steps were taken to consolidate the Government, a step rendered at once desirable and possible by the conclusion with Great Britain of the Convention of June 14, 1898, and the Declaration of March 21, 1899, which enabled France to link up the whole of her West African territories. By a Presidential decree of October 1, 1902, the colonies of

Senegal, French Guinea, the Ivory Coast, and Dahomey, and the territories of Senegambia-Niger were formed into a Government-General.¹

ii. Reorganization

M. Roume, who was appointed Governor-General, devoted the next two years to a careful reorganization of the Government; this was given formal shape by the decree of October 18, 1904, which determines the constitution of French West Africa.² By that decree the Government-General consists of (1) the colony of Senegal, including the territory under direct administration, and the protected territories on the left bank of the Senegal river, up to that time part of Senegambia-Niger; (2) the colony of French Guinea; (3) the colony of the Ivory Coast; (4) the colony of Dahomey; (5) the colony of Upper Senegal and the Niger, made up out of the former territories of the Middle Niger and Upper Senegal and the three military districts, and divided into two parts, one under civil administration, the other the military territory of the Niger; and (6) the civil territory of Mauretania. Early in 1920 an official decree formed the new colony of (7) Upper Volta, separated from the colony of Upper Senegal and the Niger (see *Geog. Journal*, March, 1920). The only other changes of importance which have been made in the position of the colonies are that by two *arrêtés* of June 22, 1910, the district of Timbuktu and those portions of the administrative divisions (*cercles*) of Gao, Tillabery, and Djerma, which lie on the right bank of the Niger, have been placed under civil administration; and the military territory is now restricted to the north and the east. In 1916 the region of Tibesti was added to the military territory.

¹ *State Papers*, vol. XCVI, p. 1270-73.

² *Ibid.*, vol. XCVII, p. 967-71.

II. SOCIAL AND POLITICAL CONDITIONS

(1) RELIGIOUS

THE position of Mohammedanism is one of the most important questions in French West Africa. Despite all the efforts of Roman Catholic missionaries, especially in Senegal and Dahomey, the number of Christian converts is small, and they are of a poor type. Mohammedanism is strongest in Mauretania and Upper Senegal and on the Niger, weakest in the south of the Ivory Coast and Dahomey. Even where it is strongest, however, progress is not unbroken; for in Bamako, where in 1897 there were 1,310 Mohammedans, the total had fallen to 834 in 1908. On the other hand, in Zinder and Segu conversions steadily increase. The fall of the civil power of Mohammedanism has induced some districts, such as Beledougou, to abandon a faith which they adopted under compulsion; and the provision of Government schools has deprived the marabouts of their former monopoly of instruction.¹ But the marabout still excites superstitious reverence, and attracts believers and unbelievers alike, while the *diuba*, or pedlar, whose methods are subtler, often ends a wandering life by establishing a mosque in one of the villages which he formerly frequented. The Government encouragement of the *madrasas*² has also doubtless helped to dignify the faith in the eyes of the people, and the action of the Government has, therefore, been severely criticised as well as praised.

To the negro the appeal of Mohammedanism undoubtedly lies in the unexactness of its

¹ They still, however, teach 50,000 children—four times as many as do the Government schools.

² *Madrasa* (*mèdersa*)—Moslem college or religious high school.

demands; it does not in practice require him to lay aside many of his superstitious beliefs; it permits and approves polygamy; and it sanctions domestic slavery, an institution so firmly rooted that its abolition by the French Government in 1901 has never been made effective.¹ In both these respects Christianity is at a grave disadvantage; proposals to veil polygamy by recognising only the principal wife as really married, and the rest as concubines, have naturally and inevitably been disapproved; and the native, long accustomed to rely on the labour of his wives, cannot be expected to accept a religion which deprives him of this great economic advantage. Nor can it be denied that the Mohammedans are as a whole superior in moral outlook to the heathen negro; so that adoption of Mohammedanism is a real advance in the scale of civilisation, though probably a bar to further development. On the other hand, it must be remembered that the negro tribes are deeply impregnated with pagan beliefs, which oppose a steady resistance to the advance of Mohammedanism, debasing and confusing it even when it is adopted; it is impossible, therefore, to argue with any certainty that French West Africa will ever be completely Mohammedanized. The attitude of the Government is friendly to Mohammedanism, although in the military territory of the Niger and in Mauretania Mohammedanism is certainly hostile to the Government. The religious centre of Mauretania is at Shingeti in Adrar, the original home of the Faleliye *marabutin*, and still a hotbed of fanaticism.²

¹ Equally great difficulty has been experienced in Nigeria in eradicating domestic slavery; in neither country does the law recognize the status of slavery, but in neither is action taken to break up the system.

² Though the marabut tribes have no special prestige, and are generally oppressed by the warriors, individual friendly marabuts exercised considerable political influence in the pacification of Mauretania, while hostile marabut influence lay at the root of the resistance offered to the French occupation of Adrar in 1909-10.

(2) POLITICAL

(a) *Central and Local Governments*

The Constitution of 1904, which is described by French writers as a model of simplicity, harmony, and balance, is based on the desire to secure effective local action by responsible officials subject to a more complete and real control than can be exercised from France, and to entrust to the supreme head of the administration the duty of securing a uniform policy in matters which require such treatment. The powers of the Republic in the colonies are, therefore, confided to the Governor-General, whose residence is fixed at Dakar, a fortified naval station and seaport on the coast of Senegal, and the official capital of French West Africa. While the power of legislation is retained by the French Legislature, and by the President of the Republic, who, under the *Sénatus-consulte* of May 3, 1854, has power to issue decrees having legal validity, the Governor-General is authorised to issue *arrêtés*, by which—subject to such laws and decrees—many matters are disposed of which in British colonies are dealt with by legislation. The Governor-General has also the right of appointment to all save the more important civil offices, and other officers are appointed on his recommendation, the Treasury officials, however, being excepted from this rule.¹

In the performance of his functions, under the constitution of 1904, the Governor-General was assisted by a Secretary-General, as well as by inspectors charged to report on the operations of the different departments of the local administrations; but, in view of the inevitable tendency for the Secretary-General to encroach on the sphere of activity of the Governor-General, the office was, at the request of

¹ These officials work under the control of the Minister of Finance in Paris, and correspond direct with him; not, like other officials, through the Governor-General (decree of December 30, 1912).

M. Ponty, the successor (1908-15) of M. Roume as Governor-General, suppressed by a decree of July 22, 1909. In place of it a department of finance and accounts, and one of general business, were instituted, whose only means of action are through the Governor-General himself. The constitution also provides a Council of Government, which the Governor-General is required to consult in matters affecting taxation and the budget, the determination of administrative divisions, &c., and which he may consult on any question. Subject to the Governor-General's supreme control, each colony is administered by a Lieutenant-Governor, who has power to issue *arrêtés* on local matters. He is aided by a Council of Administration, or, in the case of Senegal, by a Privy Council, which he is required to consult in financial matters, and may consult on any other questions. In Mauretania the head of the administration has only the rank of Commissioner of the Government-General, while the military territory of the Niger was administered up to 1910 by an officer bearing the title of Commandant, under the direction of the Lieutenant-Governor of Upper Senegal and the Niger, and is now administered by a Commissioner subordinate to the Governor-General.

(b) *Administration*

The section of Senegal under direct administration is the only part of French West Africa which is governed directly and exclusively by white officials. In the greater part of the country, which is divided into about 100 administrative divisions (*circonscriptions* or *cercles*), the numbers and arrangement of which are constantly changing, much use is made of the native chiefs, appointed by the Government for villages and cantons. These chiefs are largely employed in connection with sanitary measures, the raising of porters, the carrying out of road construction, and in the levying of taxes, especially the capita-tion tax, which is the chief form of native taxation.

Natives are freely used to fill subordinate positions in the public service. But, though use is thus made of natives for administrative purposes, the system of government through the organization of former kingdoms is not countenanced by France as it is by Great Britain in the northern provinces of British Nigeria. In the French territories the descendants of former rulers have been reduced to the rank of simple chiefs and deprived of titles of sovereignty.

The head of the division is the administrator, or, in the case of a few disturbed districts, a military commandant; he has under him a large staff of assistants for native affairs, and of clerks. All the civil activities of the district are centred in his hands. In districts where there is a fair number of Europeans the Governor-General is authorised by the decree of May 15, 1912, to establish mixed *Communes*, the administration of which is assigned to the administrator of the division with the aid of a consultative council, nominated for three years, but capable of renomination. One or two of the members of this Council may be permitted to fill the office of deputy to the administrator. Such *Communes* have been created at Louga, Tivaouane, Thiès, Kaolack, Ziguinchor, &c. Ordinary municipalities exist at Konakry and one or two other places, while Senegal has four *Communes* with a developed system of self-government on an elective basis.¹

(c) *The Judiciary*

The judicial system rests upon decrees of November 10, 1903, and of August 16, 1912, the latter of which replaces the system of native Courts provided for in the former enactment. A complete distinction is drawn between the sphere of authority of French and native Courts. The former exercise jurisdiction ex-

¹ The finances of the *Communes* are regulated by decree of December 30, 1912.

clusively in all cases where both parties are not natives of French West Africa or French Equatorial Africa, or of foreign possessions between these limits, and do not enjoy in their native places the rights of Europeans. The cases which affect natives are reserved for the native Courts; but natives may agree to submit their civil actions to the French Courts, in which case French law is applied in determining their rights. If either party is a European, French law is always applied to the exclusion of native law.

The *French Courts* form an elaborate hierarchy of (1) Justices of the Peace with very limited powers; (2) Justices of the Peace with extended powers at Kayes, Bamako, Kankan, and Bové, and Tribunals of First Instance at Konakry, Grand Bassam, Kotonou, Saint Louis, and Dakar, with full powers in civil and commercial matters, and considerable jurisdiction in less serious criminal offences; (3) Assize Courts to deal with crimes proper; and (4) a Court of Appeal, which hears appeals from the Courts of First Instance and from Justices of the Peace with extended powers. Decisions in these Colonial Courts are subject to revision by the Courts of Cassation.

The *Native Courts* are also arranged hierarchically. They comprise (1) village courts consisting of the chief, who may give decisions in any civil and commercial matters submitted to him, but whose decisions are not binding on the parties; (2) the courts of the subdivisions, composed of a native president and two native assessors with deliberative voices, selected by the head of the colony on the recommendation of the head of the division: these courts have full civil and commercial jurisdiction, and criminal jurisdiction in such matters as are not reserved to the tribunals of the divisions, subject to appeal to these tribunals; (3) divisional tribunals, consisting of the chief civil officer, assisted by two native assessors with consultative voices only. The divisional tribunal hears appeals from the courts of the subdivision in all civil and commercial matters, and from decisions in criminal cases of a grave

character, including murder, dangerous wounding, pillage, arson, kidnapping, poisoning of wells, and mutilations; it has also an exclusive criminal jurisdiction in respect of offences of slave dealing, crimes committed by native Government agents or against them in the exercise of their duties, crimes committed by soldiers in union with non-soldiers, usurpation of Government authority, offences against regulations affecting matters specially assigned to these courts, and offences against the safety of the State; and (4) a special section of the Court of Appeal, composed of three councillors, two officials, and two natives, charged with the duties of homologation and annulment. Any decision of the inferior courts may be submitted to it by the Procurator-General; and it deals also with every sentence of over five years' imprisonment or in respect of a slave-trade offence, pronounced by the divisional tribunals, and with sentences exceeding six months' imprisonment or 500 francs fine imposed on native Government agents.

The Native Courts apply native law; in cases where the parties are subject to different laws, they follow the law of the place of conclusion in respect of contracts (including marriage), and in respect of questions of status that of the defendant's tribe. The penalties allowed are death, imprisonment for life or for a term not exceeding twenty years, banishment for the same period, and fines; penalties for breach of contract are permitted if in accord with native law. Europeans who have disputes with natives may submit themselves to the courts, in which case native law is applied. These rules are subject to modification both in Senegal and in certain portions of Upper Senegal and the Niger, in the Niger Territory, and in Mauretania.

(3) MILITARY ORGANIZATION

The conquest of West Africa was effected, and peace has since been maintained, almost entirely by native

soldiers, the first Senegalese troops having been raised in 1823. Until 1912 these were comparatively few in number. Dakar, which is a strong naval base, was protected by a regiment of Senegalese *tirailleurs*, a regiment of colonial artillery, partly white, partly negro, a company of native *ouvriers d'artillerie*, a section of native engineers, and part of a battalion of colonial infantry—the only body of white troops in West Africa—the remainder forming the garrison of Saint Louis. There were also in Senegal and Upper Senegal and the Niger three regiments of *tirailleurs*, three mountain batteries of colonial artillery, and at Saint Louis a squadron of Senegalese *spahis*. There were also battalions of *tirailleurs* in French Guinea, in the Ivory Coast, in the region of Timbaktu, and in the military territory of the Niger.

In 1910, as an outcome of a visit to West Africa by Lieut.-Col. Mangin, who reported that 40,000 men could easily be raised annually by voluntary engagement for four years' service, a law was passed authorising the creation of a corps of 20,000 men, of whom one half would be stationed in West Africa, while one half would be employed in Algiers. This policy was carried a step further by a decree of February 7, 1912, which provides for compulsory enlistment of men between 20 and 28 years of age for a period of four years, as well as for voluntary enlistment for five or six years—the numbers to be determined as may be considered necessary from time to time. Native privates may re-engage up to 15 years in all, and *sous-officiers* up to 25 years, when they become entitled to pension. All the men who have served a period of engagement of less than 15 years pass into a reserve, which is liable to be called up. Native troops so enlisted are liable for foreign service as well as for service in West Africa.

(4) PUBLIC EDUCATION

The system of education, though regulated for each colony by a separate *arrêté*, is essentially the same

throughout West Africa. The system prevailing in French Guinea,¹ the Ivory Coast,² and Dahomey,³ provides for (1) primary elementary education, (2) higher elementary and commercial education, and (3) professional education. *Primary education* may be given either in rural schools, conducted by a native, or in regional schools under a European teacher; in the first the instruction comprises speaking French, reading, elements of agriculture, and (accessorily) writing, arithmetic, and other simple subjects; in the regional schools additional instruction is given in geometry, the history of France and of French West Africa, and in the geography of these places; in the elements of science as applied to hygiene, agriculture, domestic economy, and the local industries, manual work, and practical agriculture. Similar instruction is given in urban schools reserved for European children and the children of natives who have been accorded the status of Europeans, and in schools for adults whose early education has been neglected. *Higher elementary education* is given at the capital of each colony, and is directed to producing either monitors capable of teaching in schools, or youths fit to fill the minor administrative offices or situations in commercial firms. The *professional courses*, which are given either in special schools or in departments attached to regional schools, are intended to turn out practical workers for all forms of industrial activity.

In Senegal,⁴ in the urban schools, advanced elementary education is provided leading up to the work of secondary schools in France, and professional training is not given. Provision is made in all the colonies for special schools for girls, where necessary, the course of instruction including domestic economy. In Upper

¹ *Arrêté* of January 2, 1912.

² *Arrêté* of July 6, 1911. French schools at Bingerville and Bouake are regulated by an *arrêté* of April 12, 1913.

³ *Arrêté* of January 30, 1913.

⁴ *Arrêté* of January 30, 1913; as to agricultural training, an *arrêté* of December 19, 1912.

✓ Senegal and the Niger¹ a simpler classification is adopted, primary education and professional education being the only categories; but the latter is given at a central school, which at the same time serves as a school for the sons of chiefs, and includes training in telegraphy, hospital work, manual work of all kinds, and in typing and teaching. There are also special schools for specific purposes; at Saint Louis, for the preparation of native-European teachers; at Dakar, where the professional school, "Pinet-Laprade," gives advanced instruction, and where there is also a school of mechanics; at Koulikoro, where the agricultural school trains pupils for the agronomic stations of the territories; and at Banfora, where a similar school teaches the proper methods of cultivating rubber.

It must be recognized that so far few of the children receive education; with some 200 schools only 11,000 can be taught out of over 800,000. The aim of the schools is above all to teach the French language—the teachers are compelled to teach in French only, and are forbidden to use the native dialects; and practical teaching, though required in theory, is in practice much neglected. Moreover, in the village schools there are no European teachers, and the teachers (ex-soldiers, or officials) who do the work are often very ignorant. Important work, however, is done in the case of half-castes, for whom orphanages are provided, where they receive professional training. Apart from the education given by the Government, the children of Mohammedan parents receive instruction from the marabouts to the extent of being taught to repeat by heart verses of the Koran, which they do not understand. The Government has also provided in Senegal, at Saint Louis, and in Upper Senegal and Niger, at Djenne, *madrasas*, in which instruction is given in theology, history, and law by Mohammedan professors.

¹ *Arrêté* of November 2, 1912.

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS

The Native Question

IN the case of Senegal proper the situation of the Government is rendered difficult by the existence of institutions which belong to a period when it was thought possible to adopt the policy of assimilation towards the inhabitants of the country. In the rest of West Africa no such policy is now contemplated. It is recognized that for a long period the European Government must provide protection and guidance for the native; and the obligations which thus devolve on the Government are being repeatedly set out by the Governors-General, as in M. Ponty's circular of March 5, 1913, dealing with native land rights. The necessary complement to this policy is the provision of means for enabling natives whose loyalty to the State is undoubted, who can speak French, and who are of good character and means, to acquire the status of French citizens, in which case they become entitled to all the privileges of Europeans.¹

Great progress has also been made in the application to the natives of regular administration; and, though the administrators necessarily retain special powers of taking repressive measures against natives without bringing them before the established courts, the Governor-General² has laid it down that, since the enactment of the decree of August 12, 1912, the use of these reserved powers should be restricted to cases where political considerations render action by the ordinary courts dangerous, or at least highly undesirable. The Governor-General has also made strong efforts to remedy the chief abuse still persisting in the Government, the unsatisfactory method of assessing and raising the capitation tax³; and the administration has undoubtedly reached a condition of considerable efficiency.

¹ Decree of May 25, 1912, and *arrêté* of October 29, 1912.

² Circular of September 28, 1913.

³ Circular of January 30, 1914.

A feature of some interest in recent years has been the influx of Syrian merchants, who have absorbed much of the trade of the territories. Content with small profits, they compete seriously with the French merchants, who prefer business on a larger scale. Measures have been taken by the Government to control the entry of such merchants into the territory and the conduct of their business with the natives.

APPENDIX

I

CONVENTION BETWEEN FRANCE AND PORTUGAL RELATIVE TO THE DELIMITATION OF THEIR RESPECTIVE POSSESSIONS IN WEST AFRICA, MAY 12, 1886

Article I.—In Guinea, the frontier which shall separate the Portuguese from the French possessions, will follow, in accordance with the tracing upon Map I, which is annexed to the present Convention:—

In the north, a line which, starting from Cape Roxo, will keep, as far as the nature of the ground will permit, at an equal distance from the Rivers Casamance (Casamansa) and San Domingo de Cacheu (São Domingos de Cacheu) to the point of intersection of $17^{\circ} 30'$ longitude west of Paris with the parallel $12^{\circ} 40'$ of north latitude; between this point and 16° of longitude west of Paris, the frontier shall be merged in the parallel $12^{\circ} 40'$ of north latitude:—

In the east, the frontier will follow the meridian of 16° west from the $12^{\circ} 40'$ parallel of north latitude to the $11^{\circ} 40'$ parallel north latitude:—

In the south, the frontier will follow a line starting from the mouth of the River Cajet, which lies between the Island of Catack (which will belong to Portugal) and the Island of Tristão (which will belong to France), and keeping, as far as the nature of the land permits, at an equal distance between the Rio Componi (Tabati) and the Rio Cassini, then between the northern branch of the Rio Componi (Tabati) and at first the southern branch of the Rio Cassini (tributary of the Kacondo), afterwards the Rio Grande, until it reaches the point where the 16th meridian of west longitude cuts the parallel $11^{\circ} 40'$ of north latitude.

Portugal will possess all the islands included between the meridian of Cape Roxo, the coast, and the southern boundary formed by a line following the thalweg of the River Cajet, and afterwards turning towards the south-west across the Passe des Pilots, where it reaches $10^{\circ} 40'$ north latitude, and follows it as far as the meridian of Cape Roxo.

II

CONVENTION BETWEEN FRANCE AND GERMANY FOR
THE DELIMITATION OF THE GERMAN POSSESSIONS
OF TOGO AND THE FRENCH POSSESSIONS OF
DAHOMY AND THE SUDAN, JULY 23, 1897

*Article I^{er}.*¹ La frontière partira de l'intersection de la côte avec le méridien de l'Ile Bayol, se confondra avec ce méridien jusqu'à la rive sud de la lagune qu'elle suivra jusqu'à une distance de 100 mètres environ au delà de la pointe est de l'Ile Bayol, remontera ensuite directement au nord jusqu'à mi-distance de la rive sud et de la rive nord de la lagune; puis suivra les sinuosités de la lagune à égale distance des deux rives jusqu'au thalweg du Mono, qu'elle suivra jusqu'au 7° degré de latitude nord.

De l'intersection du thalweg du Mono avec le 7° degré de latitude nord, la frontière rejoindra par ce parallèle le méridien de l'Ile Bayol, qui servira de limite jusqu'à son intersection avec le parallèle passant à égale distance de Bassila et de Penesoulou. De ce point, elle gagnera la Rivière Kara suivant une ligne équidistante des chemins de Bassila à Bafilo par Kirikri et de Penesoulou à Séméré par Aledjo, et ensuite des chemins de Sudu à Séméré et d'Aledjo à Séméré, de manière à passer à égale distance de Daboni et d'Aledjo ainsi que de Sudu et d'Aledjo. Elle descendra ensuite le thalweg de la Rivière Kara sur une longueur de 5 kilom. et de ce point remontera en ligne droite vers le nord jusqu'au 10° degré de latitude nord, Séméré devant dans tous les cas rester à la France.

De là, la frontière se dirigera directement sur un point situé à égale distance entre Djé et Gandou, laissant Djé à la France et Gandou à l'Allemagne et gagnera le 11° degré de latitude nord en suivant une ligne parallèle à la route de Sansanné-Mango à Pama et distante de celle-ci de 30 kilom. Elle se prolongera ensuite vers l'ouest sur le 11° degré de latitude nord jusqu'à la Volta blanche de manière à laisser en tout cas Pougno à la France et Koun-Djari à l'Allemagne, puis elle rejoindra par le thalweg de cette rivière le 10° degré de latitude nord qu'elle suivra jusqu'à son intersection avec le méridien 3° 52' ouest de Paris (1° 32' ouest de Greenwich).

III

CONVENTION BETWEEN GREAT BRITAIN AND FRANCE
FOR THE DELIMITATION OF THEIR RESPECTIVE
POSSESSIONS TO THE WEST OF THE NIGER, AND
OF THEIR RESPECTIVE POSSESSIONS AND
SPHERES OF INFLUENCE TO THE EAST OF THAT
RIVER, JUNE 14, 1898

Article VIII.—Her Britannic Majesty's Government will grant on lease to the Government of the French Republic, for the

¹ For details of modification of this frontier effected under the Declaration of September 28, 1912, see *State Papers*, vol. CVI, p. 1001 *et seq.*

objects, and on the conditions specified in the form of lease annexed to the present Protocol, two pieces of ground to be selected by the Government of the French Republic in conjunction with Her Britannic Majesty's Government, one of which will be situated in a suitable spot on the right bank of the Niger between Leaba and the junction of the River Moussa (Mochi) with the former river, and the other on one of the mouths of the Niger. Each of these pieces of land shall have a river frontage not exceeding 400 metres in length, and shall form a block, the area of which shall not be less than 10 nor more than 50 hectares in extent. The exact boundaries of these pieces of land shall be shown on a plan annexed to each of the leases.

The conditions upon which the transit of merchandize shall be carried on on the Niger, its affluents, its branches and outlets, as well as between the piece of ground between Leaba and the junction of the River Moussa (Mochi) mentioned above, and the point upon the French frontier to be specified by the Government of the French Republic, will form the subject of Regulations, the details of which shall be discussed by the two Governments immediately after the signature of the present Protocol.

Her Britannic Majesty's Government undertake to give four months' notice to the French Government of any modification in the Regulations in question, in order to afford to the said French Government the opportunity of laying before the British Government any representations which it may wish to make.

*Article IX.*¹—Within the limits defined on Map No. 2, which is annexed to the present Protocol, British subjects and British protected persons and French citizens and French protected persons, as far as regards their persons and goods, and the merchandize the produce or the manufacture of Great Britain and France, their respective Colonies, possessions, and Protectorates, shall enjoy for thirty years from the date of the exchange of the ratifications of the Convention mentioned in Article V the same treatment in all matters of river navigation, of commerce, and of tariff and fiscal treatment and taxes of all kinds.

Subject to this condition, each of the two Contracting Powers shall be free to fix, in its own territory, and as may appear to it most convenient, the tariff and fiscal treatment and taxes of all kinds.

In case neither of the two Contracting Powers shall have notified twelve months before the expiration of the above-mentioned term of thirty years its intention to put an end to the effects of the present Article, it shall remain in force until the expiration of one year from the day on which either of the Contracting Powers shall have denounced it.

¹ The map referred to shows an area including the Ivory Coast, the Gold Coast, Dahomey, and Nigeria.

IV

CONVENTION BETWEEN FRANCE AND SPAIN FOR THE
DELIMITATION OF THEIR POSSESSIONS IN WEST
AFRICA, JUNE 27, 1900

Article 1^{er}.—Sur la côte du Sahara, la limite entre les possessions Françaises et Espagnoles suivra une ligne qui, partant du point indiqué par la carte de détail (A) juxtaposée à la carte formant l'Annexe 2 à la présente Convention, sur la côte occidentale de la péninsule du Cap Blanc, entre l'extrémité de ce cap et la baie de l'ouest, gagnera le milieu de la dite péninsule, puis, en divisant celle-ci par moitié autant que le permettra le terrain, remontera au nord jusqu'au point de rencontre avec le parallèle 21° 20' de latitude nord. La frontière se continuera à l'est sur le 21° 20' de latitude nord jusqu'à l'intersection de ce parallèle avec le méridien 15° 20' ouest de Paris (13° ouest de Greenwich). De ce point, la ligne de démarcation s'élèvera dans la direction du nord-ouest en décrivant, entre les méridiens 15° 20' et 16° 20' ouest de Paris (13° et 14° ouest de Greenwich), une courbe qui sera tracée de façon à laisser à la France, avec leurs dépendances, les salines de la région d'Idjil, de la rive extérieure desquelles la frontière se tiendra à une distance d'au moins 20 kilom. Du point de rencontre de la dite courbe avec le méridien 15° 20' ouest de Paris (13° ouest de Greenwich), la frontière gagnera aussi directement que possible l'intersection du tropique du cancer avec le méridien 14° 20' ouest de Paris (12° ouest de Greenwich), et se prolongera sur ce dernier méridien dans la direction du nord.

Il est entendu que, dans la région du Cap Blanc, la délimitation qui devra y être effectuée par la Commission Spéciale visée à l'Article VIII de la présente Convention, s'opérera de façon que la partie occidentale de la péninsule, y compris la baie de l'ouest, soit attribuée à l'Espagne, et que le Cap Blanc proprement dit et la partie orientale de la même péninsule demeurent à la France.

V

AGREEMENT BETWEEN FRANCE AND LIBERIA FOR
THE SETTLEMENT OF THE FRONTIER BETWEEN
FRENCH WEST AFRICA AND LIBERIA, SEPTEMBER 18, 1907

*Article 1^{er}.*¹—La frontière franco-libérienne serait constituée par :

1. La rive gauche de la rivière Makona, depuis l'entrée de cette rivière dans le Sierra Leone jusqu'à un point à déterminer à environ 5 kilomètres au sud de Bofosso;

¹ For details of the line agreed on see Agreement of January 13, 1911 (*State Papers*, vol. CVII, 797-800).

2. Une ligne partant de ce dernier point et se dirigeant vers le sud-est en laissant au nord les villages suivants : Koutoumaï, Kissi-Kouroumaï, Soundébou, N'Zapa, N'Zébéla, Koïama, Banguédou et allant rejoindre une source de la rivière Nuon ou d'un de ses affluents à déterminer sur place, au maximum à 10 kilomètres au sud et dans le voisinage de Lola.

Dans cette section de frontière, le tracé à délimiter devra éviter de séparer les villages d'une même tribu, sous-tribu ou groupement et utiliser autant que possible des lignes topographiques naturelles telles que le cours de ruisseaux et de rivières;

3. La rive droite de la rivière Nuon jusqu'à son confluent avec le Cavally;

4. La rive droite du Cavally jusqu'à la mer.

Dans le cas où la rivière Nuon ne serait pas un affluent du Cavally, la rive droite du Nuon ne formerait la frontière que jusqu'aux environs de Toulepleu; à hauteur et au sud de la banlieue de ce village la frontière serait tracée entre le Nuon et le Cavally dans la direction générale du parallèle de ce point, mais de manière à ne pas séparer les villages d'une même tribu, sous-tribu ou groupement et à utiliser les lignes topographiques naturelles; à partir de l'intersection de ce parallèle avec la rivière Cavally, la frontière serait constituée par la rive droite de la rivière Cavally jusqu'à la mer.

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MAPS

French West Africa is covered by West Africa (G.S.G.S. 2434), published by the War Office, on the scale 1 : 6,336,000; 1903 (additions 1914, boundaries corrected 1919).

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I. GEOGRAPHY PHYSICAL AND POLITICAL

(1) POSITION AND FRONTIERS

THE north-west corner of the African continent is occupied by a group of countries which form in all essential respects a single geographical whole, and of these Morocco is the most westerly. Its name is derived from that of the southern capital, Marrakesh.

Morocco has no fixed or natural boundaries, except the Mediterranean on the north and the Atlantic on the west; and the recognized lines of frontier depend on the terms of treaties, chiefly between European Powers. The present conventional eastern boundary begins on the Mediterranean coast at the mouth of the Wad Kiss, and runs, roughly speaking, south-south-east to Figig, where it turns sharply in a west-south-westerly direction. The southern boundary is undefined; it is, however, convenient to regard it as marked from the Atlantic inwards by the lower and middle course of the Wad Draa, which, since the Franco-Spanish treaty of 1912, is also the northern limit of the Spanish colony of Sahara. Thus defined, Morocco lies within the parallels of 28° and 36° north and the meridians 1° and 12° west of Greenwich, and occupies an area of about 240,000 square miles.

There are two Spanish zones in Morocco; the first in the north, consisting of the Mediterranean coast and its hinterland, including the Rif district and part of the Jebala; and the second in the south-west, comprising the small port of Ifni, with a certain amount of territory surrounding it. The boundaries of these

zones are fully described in *Spanish Morocco*, No. 122 of this series.

The rest of the country, with the exception of the zone of Tangier, lies within the French zone.

(2) SURFACE, COAST, AND RIVER SYSTEM

Surface

Morocco falls naturally into three divisions: (a) the Rif or Mediterranean mountain region, (b) the plains of western Morocco, (c) the Atlas system.

(a) *The Mediterranean Mountain Region.*—The northern coast is bordered by a narrow strip of high ground, immediately behind which rise the Rif (or Little Atlas) Mountains, attaining heights of 3,000–7,000 ft. From Jebel Musa on the Straits of Gibraltar the mountains run first in a southerly direction and then east-south-east, following the line of the coast. The region is as a whole very little known, but it appears that the ranges run parallel to each other, and that on their southern slopes there are many rich valleys and plains.

(b) *The Plains of Western Morocco.*—The greater part of western Morocco consists of plateaux, rising gradually from the coast to the foot of the Atlas and extending far into the interior. The region may be divided into (1) the Gharb, or northern district, (2) an intermediate zone, (3) the Huz, or southern district.

The *Gharb* extends along the Atlantic coast from Tangier to the Wad Sebu, its alluvial coastal plains being edged with sand-dunes. The Gharb includes the two great valley plains of the Wad Lekkus and the Wad Sebu—the latter of which, covering an area of about 1,500 square miles, is very marshy; it is continued towards the east in the plain of Fez. The whole region has been largely denuded of forest.

South of the Sebu lies the *intermediate zone*, a thickly wooded and in places almost impassable region, much cut up by ravines. Farther into the interior the country rises to a series of high table-lands, culminating south of Fez in the vast plateau occupied by the Beni Mtir.

The *Huz* region rises in tiers from the Atlantic coast (from Cape Ghir to Rabat) towards the Atlas Mountains. Three zones may be distinguished: (1) a coastal plain, (2) an inland plateau, (3) a plain lying just at the foot of the Atlas.

The *coastal plain* has at its widest a breadth of 50 miles, and rises gradually inland to a height of 500–600 ft. The region is very fertile, and contains the richest cornlands of Morocco. South of the Wad Tensift it merges into steppe land. The *inland plateau* rises very sharply from the plain to a height of 1,200–2,000 ft., extending inland for about 50–60 miles. The steppe land of which it is composed supports great herds of cattle and flocks of sheep. The *Atlas plain*, of which the high plain of Marrakesh forms the central portion, is about 200 miles long by about 20 miles wide, extending as far as Bujad in the Tadla region. Marrakesh itself lies in a large oasis, and is an important centre of communications. The plain merges on its southern border into the ranges of the Atlas proper.

(c) *The Atlas System*.—These mountains, which are characterized by great regularity of form, are divided into the following parallel ranges: (1) the Middle Atlas, lying to the north-east of the other two chains; (2) the High Atlas, extending from Cape Ghir (Ras Aferni) to the High Ghir; (3) the Anti-Atlas, which runs north-eastwards from the Atlantic coast and is joined to the High Atlas by the Jebel Sirwa.

The Middle Atlas chain is still very little known, the only route across it which is used to any extent

being the road leading from Meknes and Fez by Kasba el-Makhzen to the Tafilelt oasis. The south-western part of the range is linked by a lower chain to the High Atlas. The mountains lie in a region of abundant rainfall, and are clothed up to a height of 11,000 ft. with splendid forests of cedar. The Middle Atlas has always been a stronghold of Berber resistance to foreign influence, and is the home of some of the wildest and most warlike tribes in Morocco.

The mountains of the *High Atlas* form a lofty barrier 600 miles long between the north-western part of Morocco and the desert, rising in the Tizt Tamfrit to the estimated height of 15,000 ft. The chain is crossed by various high passes, the principal pass south of Marrakesh being 12,000 ft. in height. The High Atlas is divided into an eastern and a western wing, the junction being at the Tizi n Telwet, south-east of Marrakesh. The western wing is fairly well known, but the eastern has been little explored.

On the southern side of the High Atlas is the plain of the Sus, reaching from the Atlantic coast far into the interior. There is a fair amount of cultivation along the course of the Wad Sus. At the extreme eastern end of the High Atlas, between it and the Middle Atlas, lies the upper valley of the Muluya, an immense bare plain, mostly desert, extending far over the borders of Algeria. There are a few isolated oases.

The Anti-Atlas rises from the Atlantic coast between the Wad Sus and the Wad Draa, and extends eastwards as far as the Tafilelt district. Southwards the range slopes to the Draa depression, and beyond this is the Jebel Bain (650–1,650 ft.), separating Morocco from the Sahara. On the east the Anti-Atlas merges into vast plateaux, characterized by the presence of *gur*, isolated table-topped hills of hard rock.

Coast

The coast-line of Morocco lies along both the Mediterranean and the Atlantic, and in general has very few bays and scarcely any good harbours.

From the Algerian boundary the low and sandy coast runs first in a north-westerly direction to the promontory of Melilla. From Melilla the coast runs south-west, west, and north-west to Ceuta, opposite Gibraltar, and is for the most part high and rocky. The only bay of importance is that of Alhucemas. There is a succession of small and rocky islands along the Mediterranean coast, of which the chief are the Zaffarin Islands, containing a good roadstead.

From Ceuta the coast runs south-west as far as Cape Spartel, and this section contains the Bay of Ceuta and the important port of Tangier. From Cape Spartel the coast runs generally south-west and, except for a section of high cliffs, is low and sandy towards the mouth of the Wad Sebu. Anchorage is bad all along this part of the coast, and the only headlands are those of Fedala and Casablanca. South of Mogador the coast becomes more inaccessible from the sea. The best natural port on the Atlantic coast is that of Laraish (El-Araish), which falls within the Spanish zone. Mogador and Agadir are somewhat more sheltered, but as a rule vessels can only approach to within $1\frac{1}{2}$ or 2 miles of the coast.

River System

Morocco is more fortunate than the other countries of north-west Africa in possessing several considerable rivers. This is due partly to the comparatively abundant rainfall and partly to the melting of the snows on the great mass of the central mountains.

The most important river flowing into the Mediterranean is the *Wad Muluya*, which rises in the east of

the High Atlas and pursues a winding course of nearly 250 miles, entering the sea at Cap de l'Eau, east of Melilla. In its upper course it has a steep fall, but towards the mouth it becomes sluggish, with an average width of 100 yds. The chief tributaries are, on the right bank, the Wad Za, and, on the left, the Wad Msun.

The chief rivers flowing into the Atlantic are, named from north to south, the Wad Lekkus, the Wad Sebu, the Umm er-Rebia, the Wad Tensift, the Wad Sus, and the Wad Draa. The *Wad Lekkus* (*Lukkos*, *Lukkus*) rises in the Jebala Mountains and flows into the sea at Laraish. The *Wad Sebu* rises in the Middle Atlas. After passing Muelin el-Bab it enters the plain of the Gharb, and, winding through country which gradually becomes marshy, enters the sea at Mahediya. The chief tributaries are, on the right, the Wad Innawen and the Wad Waghra (Warra, Werra), and, on the left, the Wad Mikkes, the Wad Ghedem, and the Wad Beht.

The *Umm er-Rebia* rises in the Middle Atlas, and has a course of about 370 miles, mostly rapid. It reaches the sea at Azemmur, with an average width of 110 yds., and a depth at low tide of over 8 ft. Its chief tributary is the Wad el-Abid, on the left bank.

The *Wad Tensift* rises in the High Atlas and enters the sea 16 miles south-west of Saffi. Though its bed is wide, its flow is small, and in summer quite dries up. A large amount of its water is drawn off for irrigation. The *Wad Sus* is of the same type as the Tensift. It rises at the meeting-place of the Jebel Sirwa and the High Atlas, and for a large part of its course is intermittent. The *Wad Draa*, which rises in the Anti-Atlas, and has a winding course roughly parallel to those of the other rivers of the Atlantic system, is chiefly remarkable as forming a barrier between Morocco proper and the desert. It also in a sense marks the natural

southern boundary of the country, being the line between Morocco and the Spanish colony of Rio de Oro (Spanish Sahara).

(3) CLIMATE

The climate of Morocco, except in the most northerly district, is not of the Mediterranean type, as the greater part of the country looks towards the Atlantic, and the influence of the ocean is felt far inland. In the south and south-east desert conditions prevail, and this, to a certain extent, affects the atmosphere of neighbouring regions. It must, however, be borne in mind that the great central chains divide the country into two sections of widely different character, and that the greater part of the country lies open to the moisture-laden western winds. Meteorological data are as yet insufficient, but, speaking generally, the year falls into two seasons, the cool, rainy season from November to April, and the hot, dry season from May to October.

Temperature.—On the Atlantic coast the annual mean temperature is fairly low and the daily and yearly variations slight. The east wind (scirocco) which blows from the desert in summer raises the temperature considerably, though the scirocco periods vary, e. g. at Mogador the wind blows only two or three times a year, and never lasts more than half a day, while at Agadir it sometimes blows continually for several weeks. The west winds which prevail in winter tend to lower the temperature, though south of Rabat the thermometer never falls below 32° F. (0° C.).

Inland the conditions are different, as both daily and yearly variations are great. At Marrakesh the heat in summer is much greater than on the coast, while in winter the temperature is lower, especially at night, but even in January and February the thermometer rarely falls below freezing-point. The effect of the scirocco is felt in summer even as far as Fez.

Rainfall.—The west winds which blow from the Atlantic in the winter bring with them a considerable amount of moisture, and the effects of the consequent rainfall are felt from 30 to 60 miles inland. The rainfall is most abundant in the north-west, especially in the Gharb, gradually lessening towards the south. It may therefore be said that on the coast there is a regular rainy season in the winter, a fair amount of rain also falling in both spring and autumn. The Mediterranean coastal region also receives a good deal of rain, but the amount of it rapidly decreases inland.

Much snow falls on the Atlas Mountains between November and May, above the level of 3,300 ft., but it melts at the beginning of summer, and thus ensures a plentiful supply of water for the rivers during the dry season. Many districts which have an insufficient rainfall are thus provided with ample water for irrigation, &c.

(4) SANITARY CONDITIONS

In general the climatic conditions of Morocco are favourable to health, and some districts are even adapted to become health resorts. There is no lack of good drinking-water, and the health conditions are in most places well adapted for European visitors and settlers as well as for the natives.

Among the natives skin diseases are common; leprosy and elephantiasis occur, but are rare, while of contagious diseases syphilis is the most widespread. Malaria is common in the valleys, and occurs even in the Atlas up to a height of 5,000 ft. Small-pox is very prevalent, except, apparently, in the Sus basin, but pulmonary tuberculosis is rare. Plague and cholera are periodically imported by pilgrims from Mecca. As is usually the case in North Africa, eye diseases are very common and are almost completely neglected.

(5) RACE AND LANGUAGE

Morocco is inhabited by a medley of races. As is everywhere the case in North-west Africa, the original Berber stock has been considerably mixed with Arab, negro, and other elements.

The name *Moors*, which is often loosely employed to designate the inhabitants of Morocco, is best reserved for the descendants of the mixed population which flowed back into Africa from Spain in the fourteenth century. They are a handsome people, with features of a European type, and must not be confused with the Moors of Mauretania, who lead a nomad existence between the extreme south of Morocco and Senegal, and belong to the North African brown race. At present they are found only in certain of the towns.

The distinction of race sometimes made between Berbers and Arabs in Morocco must not be pressed too far, as the two elements have closely intermingled, and Mohammedanism is spreading among these mixed tribes, so that in some tribes it is now quite impossible to distinguish the two supposed original strains. Arabic is tending to displace Tamazight (i.e. the Berber speech).

The population may be conveniently considered under the following headings: (a) Berbers, (b) Arabs, (c) Jews, (d) Haratin, (e) Negroes.

(a) *Berbers*.—The earliest known inhabitants of Morocco were of the Berber race; and tribes predominantly Berber still vastly outnumber the others and occupy the greater part of the country. They appear to be originally a blend of two races, a brown race coming from southern Europe and a Saharan brown (not black) race. To this mixture was later added a fair strain which among the mountain tribes, above all in the Middle Atlas, holds an important place.

The various peoples collectively called Berbers are far from presenting a single physical type, as many intermediate types between Berber and Arab are found, and no sharp line can be drawn.

The Berbers are not a racial so much as a linguistic unity. They call themselves *Imazighen* (i. e. 'free' or 'noble'), and their common language *Tamazight*. This tongue has affinities with Coptic and ancient Egyptian, with the non-Semitic languages of Abyssinia and Nubia, and with Hausa; and dialects of it are spoken in districts from the Trarzas on the banks of the Senegal to the oasis of Siwa in the Libyan desert. In spite of great dialectal differences the general structure is the same throughout. Of the total Mohammedan population it has been suggested that 2,200,000 speak Arabic, and 800,000 Berber, but the figures given cannot be relied upon.

The Berbers may be divided into three main groups: the Beraber, the Shluh, and the Ruafa.

The *Beraber*, who form the most powerful confederation of tribes in Morocco, are still little known. They occupy the central part of Morocco, the valleys of the upper Muluya, Gir, Ziz, and Draa, with the districts north of Figig and Tafilelt, and south-west of Fez and Meknes. They are mostly nomads, and are notorious raiders. Their dialect is not understood by the other Berbers.

To the group of the *Shluh* belong the tribes which inhabit the mountains east and south of Marrakesh; the Glawa, Mesfiwa, Mtuga, and all the tribes the names of which begin with *Ida u*; the Suassa in the Sus valley (Arabized), and all the inhabitants of the Anti-Atlas almost to the Wad Draa. They are mostly sedentary, and are milder than the other two groups.

The *Ruafa* or Rif tribes resemble the Beraber, but on the southern slope of the mountains the stock is more mixed. Arabization is advancing in the Jebala.

(b) *Arabs*.—The number of Arabs who at any time invaded Morocco, or at any rate who remained there, can never have been great; and they soon merged in the Berber population. It was the great Hilalian invasion of the eleventh century, followed by a continued immigration or infiltration during the three succeeding centuries, which introduced into Morocco most of the existing Arab elements. They are found mostly in the north-west districts (Jebala and Lekkus valley), in the Haskura plain near the Wad Dades, on the plateaux near the Algerian frontier, and as nomads about the region of the Wad Draa. The tribes of the Atlas are almost untouched by Arab influence.

The chief way in which the Arab element has affected Morocco is through the introduction of Islam and the influence possessed by the Sherifs, especially those of Féz and Wazzan.

(c) *Jews*.—Four considerable groups of Jews, differing in various respects from one another, may be distinguished: (i) In the district between Tangier and the Gharb, a group of about 30,000, of Spanish origin, and speaking a mixture of Spanish and Berber.

(ii) In the chief coast towns and inland districts of the north, a group of 50,000–60,000, speaking mainly Arabic, but under Spanish influence through their Rabbis.

(iii) In the Berber districts of the south, a group of 40,000, chiefly skilled artisans (these are probably Berbers who had adopted Judaism before Morocco was Islamized).

(iv) In the districts of Glawa, Dades, the upper Draa, Tafilelt, and among the Ait Atta, a group of about 30,000, coming from Tuat (according to themselves their forefathers entered Morocco about A. D. 70).

The position of the Jews in Morocco has been an unhappy one, but it appears to be somewhat im-

proving. They are still subject to vexatious restrictions, but are now more despised than ill-treated. The trade of the country is very largely in their hands, particularly in the cities and ports, and many have acquired considerable wealth, especially by money-lending.

(d) *Haratin*.—The Haratin (sing. *Hartani*) are usually considered to be half-castes, of mixed Shluh and Sudanese origin, but it is possible that they belong to a distinct race. They are negroid (though often fair-skinned), and are found mostly in the Shluh districts south of the Atlas. They are usually employed as agricultural labourers, and do not mix much with either Arabs or Berbers.

(e) *Negroes*.—Negroes were until comparatively recently imported from the Sudan in large numbers as slaves; and in many parts of the country there is a strong admixture of negro blood. The slave-trade, resolutely discouraged by the French, has now much decreased, and is only carried on furtively in a few markets. The Buakher, who supply the garrison of Meknes, are descendants of the famous Black Guard of Mulai Ismail.

(6) POPULATION

Distribution and Density

No exact statistics exist for most parts of the country; and exaggerated estimates, based on acquaintance with the more populous coast districts and towns, or upon haphazard native information, have frequently been put forward. The figures given are those accepted by the best recent authorities, but they are still to a considerable extent conjectural.

Of the total area of Morocco (about 240,000 square miles) the inhabited surface (not reckoning the purely desert regions) may be estimated at 100,000 square

miles. The population is variously estimated at from four to six millions, although even the former figure may possibly be too high. Of these, from three and a half to five and a half live within the French zone, some two and a half in the occupied, and one million in the not yet occupied, territory; the native population of the Spanish zone and Tangier territory is roughly estimated at one million. In the figures given for the Protectorate are reckoned 125,000 Jews (75,000 in the occupied, 50,000 in the unoccupied, territory). Naturally, as the occupation advances, these ratios alter. To the total for the native population must be added (for the whole of Morocco) a European or immigrant population of 60,000, of whom 36,000 are Frenchmen or Franco-Algerian subjects, 1,000 English, and 13,450 Spanish.

The average density of population all over Morocco is therefore less than 20 to the square mile of total area, or about 45 to the square mile of inhabited area. The population is very unevenly distributed throughout the country, which as a whole appears to be capable of supporting a much larger one.

The most densely peopled zone is certainly that lying on the Atlantic coast, i. e. that which comprises the Gharb and the Huz, but even here the density varies greatly. The population of this region, which largely falls within the French Protectorate, has been estimated at 2,200,000. A second zone consists of the mountain regions (coastal ranges, Middle and High Atlas), which are much more sparsely peopled than is commonly supposed. In the Spanish zone some parts, especially in the west, are fairly densely inhabited, e. g. round Tetuan and Wazzan, as also is the Geliya peninsula in the Rif. In the Atlas itself the villages of the mountain valleys are poor and sparsely inhabited, while in the Sus and the Muluya

valleys the settlements do not extend beyond the immediate banks of the streams. It is only where the mountains meet the plain that considerable villages are found in any number. For the whole of the mountain districts an estimate of 1,500,000 has been suggested; to this may be added 200,000 apiece for the basins of the Sus and the Muluya. This would bring the total for the second zone to 1,900,000.

A third zone includes the Moroccan Sahara, the basins of the Draa, the Ziz (Tafilelt), and the Gir. Here again the inhabited oases lie in narrow strips along the course of the rivers, and relatively to the extent of the district the population is small. The following figures have been suggested, but are probably much too high:

Basin of the Draa	100,000-250,000
Basin of the Ziz	120,000-200,000
Basin of the Gir (including Figig and the nomads of the region)	100,000
Total for the third zone . .	320,000-550,000

Even the lower figure may be excessive, and the population of the Moroccan oases may not be above 125,000. As the estimate for the second or mountain zone is possibly slightly too low, the results may be stated as follows:

Atlantic zone	2,200,000
Mountain zone	2,000,000
Saharan zone	300,000
Total	4,500,000

Tangier and its zone occupying an area of 110 square miles, has a native population of about 42,000 (of whom 12,000 are Jews); there are 11,000-12,000 Europeans (including Franco-Algerians).

Towns and Villages

The urban population has of late years considerably increased, one cause of this being the influx of Europeans into the coast towns. The most important towns are Tangier (see above) ; Fez, a centre of trade and commerce ; Rabat, also a trading town ; Meknes and Marrakesh, containing many negroes ; Casablanca (Dar el-Beida), a health resort ; and Mogador (Suerah), a modern town with a very large Jewish population.

For the towns in the Spanish zone, see *Spanish Morocco*, No. 122 of this series.

By far the greater part of the population, however, is rural, and there are many large villages, chiefly in the Tell region. Towards the southern desert region there are many nomadic or semi-nomadic tribes, who frequently change their abiding-places in consequence of droughts or quarrels with their neighbours.

Movement

Little can be said except that in some instances in recent years tribes have lost heavily in wars, raids, famines, and epidemics, while in districts where security has been assured, and where growing wealth encourages polygamy, numbers tend to increase.

II. POLITICAL HISTORY

CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE

- 682-710. The ' Arab Conquest '.
788. Idrisi Dynasty founded by Idris I.
1062. Foundation of Almoravid Empire.
1086. Foundation of Almohad Empire.
1415. Portuguese take Ceuta.
1471. Portuguese take Tangier.
1550. Sherifian Dynasties begin ; the Saadian Sherifs.
1580. Tangier passes to Spain.
1656. Tangier again Portuguese.
1660. Dynasty of Filali Sherifs begins.
1662. Tangier passes to England.
- 1672-1727. Reign of Mulai Ismail.
1684. English evacuate Tangier.
1759. Portuguese evacuate Mazagan.
1844. Conflict with France ; Treaty of Tangier.
- 1859-60. War with Spain ; Treaty of Tetuan.
- 1873-94. Reign of Mulai el-Hasan.
1880. Conference of Madrid. - ~~Agadir~~
1894. Accession of Abd el-Aziz.
1900. Franco-Italian Agreement.
1902. Rebellion of Bu Hamara.
1904. Agreements between Great Britain and France, and France and Spain, concerning Morocco.
1905. Visit of the German Emperor to Tangier.
1906. Conference and Act of Algeciras.
1908. Abd el-Aziz deposed by Mulai Hafid.
1909. Franco-German Agreement.
1911. French expedition to Fez. *The Panther at Agadir.*
1911. Franco-German Agreement.
1912. Franco-Spanish Agreement.
1912. French and Spanish Protectorates in Morocco.
1912. Mulai Hafid abdicates : Mulai Yusuf succeeds.

(1) EARLY HISTORY

THE earliest peoples to explore and report upon Morocco were the Phoenicians and Carthaginians, who established trading stations on its coasts. The Romans followed and converted Morocco into a province, Mauretania (Tingitana), but their sway never extended beyond the northern part; and, on the fall of the Empire, the civilization and language of Rome died out. Nor did the Vandal or Gothic invasions of the fifth and sixth centuries leave any more abiding traces. The natives recovered all parts, except Ceuta; their superficial Christianity faded; and all links were broken with the West and with European civilization.

(2) THE 'ARAB CONQUEST'

The so-called 'Arab Conquest' of the seventh century (A. D. 682-710) was less an invasion than a successful foray by a small but highly disciplined and skilfully led force. The leaders did not subdue the natives, but cleverly set themselves at their head and enlisted them for the conquest of Spain. The Berbers shared in the victories which brought the Mussulman invaders across the Pyrenees, in the foundation and maintenance of the Western Khalifate, and in the defeats which ultimately rolled the invaders back to the continent of Africa. The final collapse of the immense Empire of the Khalifs was in part due to insurrections of the Berbers in their rear.

Meanwhile, the hold of the Khalifate over Morocco itself was always precarious and frequently challenged. The land was for many centuries the scene of intestine strife and of widespread and passionate religious movements. The Berbers had in name accepted Islam, but their orthodoxy was skin-deep. In the eighth century the Kharejite heresy so prevailed as to wrest western Africa from the grasp of the Khalifate. The Kharejites

succeeded in founding short-lived empires at Tiaret and at Sijilmassa in Tafilét.

A more permanent result was achieved by another movement, also in origin heretical, in the west of Morocco. In A.D. 788 Idris I established his sway over a great part of the land. He was succeeded by his posthumous son Idris II, the founder of Fez (A.D. 804-28). The former is still regarded as the patron saint of all Morocco, while the latter is that of Fez. But the Idrissite power rapidly disintegrated and a period of great confusion followed, in which dynasties rose and disappeared like bubbles, while the country as a whole was threatened or attacked on the one side by the Fatimite Empire of Egypt and on the other by the Ommayyad Khalifate of Cordova.

(3) BERBER DYNASTIES (ELEVENTH TO SIXTEENTH CENTURIES)

In the eleventh century hordes of fierce Arab invaders and pillagers swept over the land from the east (the 'Hilalian Invasion'), settling down upon it, sometimes submerging and sometimes being submerged by the indigenous population. Presently another power arose in the desert, under the leadership of fanatics (Mujahidin or Morabitin), who took Sijilmassa and Tarudant, crossed the High Atlas, and conquered as far as the province of Tadla. One of their leaders, Yusuf ben Tashfin, founded the so-called Almoravid Empire, with its capital and base in the new city of Marrakesh (A.D. 1062). He besieged and took Fez, Tangier, and Tlemsen, made himself master of the whole of Morocco, and invaded Spain.

In less than half a century his immense empire had crumbled away, and was succeeded by that of the Almohad, founded by an austere Berber of the Atlas, Ibn Tumert, who proclaimed himself Mahdi. On his death

in A. D. 1128, Abd el Mumin, his disciple, continued his work and established a Moslem Empire only exceeded by that of the Turk. It included all Morocco, Algeria, Tunis, and Tripoli; in Europe, Cadiz, Cordova, and Granada. He created a fleet, and maintained complete order and security in Morocco. In A.D. 1170 the Almohad capital was moved to Seville. The son and grandson of Abd el-Mumin also proved themselves great warriors and rulers.

In the thirteenth century the Almohad Empire fell in ruins, and again a long period of confusion ensued. For a time the chief power fell into the hands of an originally nomad tribe, the Beni Merin (Merinids). The rulers of this dynasty carried the Holy War on to the seas, and spread terror by means of their corsairs over the coasts of Christian Europe. Towards the end of the next century anarchy was again rampant in Morocco. The Spaniards and the Portuguese expelled the Moors from the Peninsula, and carried the war against them into Africa. The Portuguese took Ceuta in 1415, El-Ksar (Alcazar) in 1458, and Arzila and Tangier in 1471.

These infidel successes provoked a reaction. Centres of resistance by the end of the fifteenth century were organized by the Marabuts or the Sherifs in the tribes, whom they inspired with a fanatical devotion to Islam and a fierce detestation of the foreigner. The movement was religious and national rather than political. The last of the Merinid sovereigns were murdered or dethroned, and the period of the Sherifian dynasties began (A.D. 1550).

(4) SHERIFIAN DYNASTIES (SIXTEENTH TO NINETEENTH CENTURIES)

From this date, A. D. 1550, two novel features emerge :
(1) the formation by the Marabuts of large quasi-feudal

fiefs all over Morocco, mostly recalcitrant to the rule of the central power, of which the majority still exist ; (2) the rivalry of the Sherifs with the Turks, who had by this time established themselves in the Barbary States.

The present form of native government in Morocco was created by the Saadian Sherifs, whose power was based on a mercenary army modelled on that of the Turks. The sovereigns of this dynasty were able to conquer Senegal and the Sudan, but at home there was no real system of government, and what government there was depended for its occasional effectiveness upon the personal character of the sovereign of the day. Throughout this period, for some two and a half centuries at least, the Sallee rovers (so named from the port on the Atlantic—Rabat-Sallee—which formed their main base) were the terror of the seas. They approached as nearly to an organized navy as anything the country ever possessed, and were at times fitted out by the State. Their ravages reached even as far as Devon and Cornwall. They carried off the inhabitants of whole hamlets ; and the heart-rending condition of the Christian slaves in Morocco excited the pity and indignation of Christian Europe for many long years before any effective remedy was found.

The Saadian dynasty ended in A.D. 1660. It was succeeded by the present dynasty, that of the Hassanian or Filali Sherifs, originally from Tafilelt. The greatest of the sovereigns of this house was the second, Mulai Ismail. A man of immense vitality, courage, and cruelty, he ruled for 55 years (A.D. 1672–1727), and during the whole of his reign his fierce grasp never relaxed. He created a personal guard of black troops (the 'Black Guard' or Abid el-Bokhari), whom he kept partly at the court, partly dispersed in garrisons (*kasbas*) throughout the country. With their aid he

dominated the Marabuts, the Turks, and the Christians. He even obliged the wild mountain tribes to submit to his rule, and reintroduced security throughout his domains. By these means the semblance of a central government was maintained in Morocco down to the end of the nineteenth century.

Ismail's feebleness loosened their grasp upon their subjects, and had constantly to struggle against rebellions and with the disloyalty of the palace guard. Yet the framework of government established by Ismail remained firm, and at intervals a relative order was restored. In one respect success was maintained. European influence was expelled from Morocco. Tangier had been captured by the Portuguese in 1471, passed to Spain in 1580, returned again to the Portuguese in 1656, and in 1662 came into English possession as part of the dowry of Catherine of Braganza on her marriage with Charles II. But after defending it successfully against Mulai Ismail in 1680, the English finally evacuated it in 1684. Portugal, however, retained a footing in Morocco until 1759, when she evacuated her last possession there, Mazagan. After this year no foreign Power held a foothold on the mainland, though the Spaniards clung to the valueless *presidios* (convict settlements) upon a few barren islets strung out along the Mediterranean coast.¹ Apart from the depredations of her corsairs, Morocco for some seventy years after this date remained little noticed by the Powers of Europe.

(5) FROM 1830 TO 1912

A change of enormous importance in the external relations of Morocco was brought about by the establishment of France in Algeria (1830). The insurrection of Abd el-Kader against the French, and especially the

¹ See *Spanish Morocco*, No. 122 of this series.

reception of the fugitive rebel in Moroccan territory, led to armed conflict between the Moroccan and the French armies (1843-4) and the French victory at Isly in August 1844. Hostilities were terminated in this year by the Treaty of Tangier and the Convention of Lalla Marnia. The Sultan of Morocco withdrew his protection from the rebel Emir, who in 1847 surrendered to General de Lamoricière. The boundary line between Algerian and Moroccan territory was defined in a Franco-Moroccan treaty signed on March 18, 1845.¹ With Spain a war broke out in 1859, which terminated with the Treaty of Tetuan on April 26, 1860.² The terms of both the French and the Spanish treaties were largely influenced by the reluctance of the British Government to tolerate the occupation by any European Power of the Moroccan coast.

For some time outside interference with the affairs of Morocco was suspended or only occasional. The process of internal decay was arrested or delayed by the energetic rule of Mulai el-Hasan (A. D. 1873-94), who by a series of rapidly moving expeditions consolidated his authority over the more accessible regions of his empire. On one of these in 1894 he died and was succeeded by his son Abd el-Aziz. During his minority (till 1900) the real governor was the Grand Vizier, Ba Ahmed, who continued with skill and success the policy of his late master.

Abd el-Aziz possessed a good intelligence, but neither by saintliness of character nor by military qualities was he suited for the position of Sherif. From his accession he was surrounded by intrigues both native and foreign. His native counsellors after the death of Ba Ahmed, both in his and their own interest, leant upon foreign support. Towards the end of 1902 internal troubles

¹ See Hertslet, *Map of Africa by Treaty*, p. 1146.

² Ibid., p. 1173. See *Spanish Morocco*.

broke out. A pretender (*rogi*) called Bu Hamara raised the banner of revolt and defeated the army of the Sultan; he did not, however, attempt to enter Fez, and the conflict continued with varying fortunes till 1906. The predatory activities of the notorious Raisuli (Mulai Hamid bin Raisuli) began some years before 1903. The ensuing anarchy was nothing new in Morocco, but a growing interest was taken in it by the great European Powers. In 1908 Abd el-Aziz was unable, even with the support of France, to maintain himself against another pretender, his elder brother Mulai Hafid, who was, upon the enforced abdication of Abd el-Aziz, recognized by the Ulema as the legitimate Sultan and acknowledged as such by all Morocco. He captured Bu Hamara and threw him to the wild beasts of his menagerie. He was obliged to call in the French to save him from the Berbers, who besieged him in Fez, but he declined their further co-operation and in the end resigned his throne in 1912, to be succeeded by his brother Mulai Yusuf. Mulai Hafid lived in Tangier till the outbreak of war in 1914, when he retired to Barcelona.

(6) THE MOROCCAN QUESTION

Although the Conference of Madrid (1880)¹ foreshadowed future conflicts, it was not till about 1900 that the 'Moroccan question' definitely assumed an international character, and the European Powers whose interests were chiefly concerned endeavoured to come to agreement.

In 1900 France and Italy agreed not to interfere with each other in Tripoli and Morocco. Similarly, by an Anglo-French Declaration, signed on April 8, 1904, the two contracting parties bound themselves not to obstruct each other's action in Egypt and

¹ See *Spanish Morocco*, and Appendix, I, *infra*, p. 61.

Morocco. In this agreement Spanish interests in the latter country, derived 'from her geographical position and from her territorial possessions on the Moorish coast of the Mediterranean', were recognized.¹

To this Declaration Spain gave her adhesion; and in a Declaration between France and Spain, of date October 3, 1904, both Powers expressly recognized the 'integrity of the Moroccan Empire under the sovereignty of the Sultan'.² A secret convention between France and Spain of the same date delimited the frontier of the Spanish coastal possessions and of the territory of Ifni (ceded by the Sultan to Spain on April 26, 1860), and described the line of demarcation between the French and Spanish spheres of influence.³

This secret convention in reality prepared for a partition of Morocco whenever the independence of the sultanate, recognized in the open declaration, became impossible. These provisions, though communicated at the time to H. M. Government, were not publicly revealed till 1911, and on becoming known produced startling results in Germany.

The visit of the Emperor William II to Tangier on March 31, 1905 (with the subsequent dispatch of a German mission to Fez), was an unexpected notification to the world that Germany claimed an interest and a voice in the settlement of a question from which she had in the earlier stages expressly dissociated herself. The immediate result was that the Sultan rejected the French proposals for reform, and demanded that they should be submitted to an international conference. In the end such a conference

¹ See Appendix, IV, p. 67.

² Hertslet, *Map of Africa by Treaty*, p. 1168.

³ Cd. 6010, Morocco, No. 4 (1911). See for more details *Spanish Morocco*.

was held at Algeciras on January 16, 1906, where an agreement was arrived at (April 7, 1906)¹ and accepted by the Sultan.

The lines of French policy in Morocco were early determined upon; the principle adopted was that of safeguarding, and by reforms strengthening, the power of the Sultan and the native government while at the same time developing the political and economic interests of France in Morocco—in general to work for the organization of the country through a reformed and regenerated *Makhzen* (i. e. the form of government erected by the Saadian Sherifs).

But untoward events for a while delayed the application of this policy. Murderous attacks on some of her subjects obliged France to intervene by armed demonstrations and punitive expeditions in both the east and the west of Morocco. These police operations successfully attained their objects, and the forces employed were withdrawn. In 1908 Abd el-Aziz was dethroned by Mulai Hafid, whose success led to his recognition as Sultan by the Powers on January 9, 1909.

✓ Various incidents again brought Germany into the field of diplomatic discussion concerning Morocco; and in 1909 pourparlers led to an agreement (February 8, 1909) by which Germany, while securing protection for her economic interests in Morocco, acknowledged once more the peculiar and special political concern of France in that country.² This was followed by an agreement between France and the Makhzen, a parallel convention being signed about the same time between Spain and the Makhzen. By the former France secured important points of advantage for the carrying out of reforms. In 1910 the region between Melilla and the Wad

¹ Cd. 3302, Treaty Series, No. 4 (1907), and Appendix, X, p. 81.

² See Appendix, XII, p. 85.

Muluya was brought temporarily under Spanish control, while the military occupation of the district between Laraish, El-Ksar (Alcazar), and Arzila took place in 1911. At the beginning of 1911 the chronic anarchy again rose to a head; there was much agitation among some of the tribes, and the Sultan, besieged in Fez, appealed for assistance to France against the insurgents. An expeditionary force of considerable numbers proved requisite; it marched rapidly on Fez and raised the siege. An unexpected result of this was a renewal of the German claims to a voice in the affairs of Morocco, expressed in the dispatch, on July 1, 1911, of a German gunboat, the *Panther*, to the port of Agadir. Ostensibly its mission was to protect German interests in that port. In reality Germany desired to acquire a port on the Atlantic, which might give rise to claims to a hinterland of indefinite extent.

A period of acute international tension followed, but was eventually ended by an Agreement, negotiated at Berlin (November 4, 1911). This Agreement, together with the accompanying explanation by the German Foreign Secretary, secured important privileges to France in return for concessions to Germany in the French Congo. By it France might, after obtaining the consent of the Moorish Government, proceed with such military occupation of Moorish territory as she might consider necessary; exercise all rights of police on land and in Moorish waters; and, if she deemed it also necessary, assume a protectorate over Morocco. The port of Agadir itself was to be opened to international commerce.¹

As soon as the Agreement with Germany was ratified, it was submitted by France for acceptance by the Sultan. A convention was signed at Fez, in which the

¹ See Cd, 6010, Morocco, No. 4 (1911), and Appendix, XIII, p. 85.

two Governments agreed to institute a new form of government embracing all the reforms that France should see fit to introduce in Moroccan territory, and constituting the French Resident-General the sole intermediary of the Sultan in his relations with foreign Powers. Thus the Protectorate of France over Morocco was formally established.

In 1912 negotiations between France and Spain concerning their respective spheres of influence in Morocco resulted in a Franco-Spanish treaty of November 27, 1912. By this France recognized Spanish exclusive administrative rights in the Spanish zone, the limits of which were precisely defined. The Agreement also provided for the recognition of Spanish rights in the district of Ifni and Cape Nun (granted to Spain as far back as 1860 by the Treaty of Tetuan), and determined its limits. It was also agreed that Tangier and the adjacent district, the limits of which were described in the Agreement (amounting to some 140 square miles in extent), should become a distinct zone with a separate administration to be determined later. Rules concerning existing rights and privileges, Spanish responsibilities, jurisdiction, arbitration, &c., were also laid down.¹

The Agreement had added to it a protocol concerning the Tangier-Fez Railway and the conditions of its construction and finance, &c. In it provision was made for the close co-operation of France and Spain in this matter.

The proclamation of the Protectorate by France proved the occasion, if not the cause, of grave troubles in Morocco. The Sherifian troops, who were being reorganized by a French military mission, mutinied; the population of Fez joined the revolt and massacred

¹ See Appendix, XVI, p. 90, and *Spanish Morocco*, No. 122 of this series.

a number of Europeans. The neighbouring Berbers began a siege of the capital, which was held only with difficulty. The Sultan proposed to abandon Fez for Rabat, and in the end abdicated, being succeeded by his second brother, Mulai Yusuf. Serious unrest showed itself in other regions, especially in the northern (or Spanish) zone and in the south. It looked as if Morocco was once more on the point of falling a prey to one of its old frenzies of fanatical religious zeal and hatred of foreigners, but at this crisis an almost ideal representative of France was appointed Commissary Resident-General. General Lyautey was, as events have proved, by his personal qualities and his large colonial experience, both military and civil, just the man to cope with the manifold and grave difficulties of the situation. The besiegers of Fez were repelled, the tribes in its neighbourhood mastered or rolled back towards their mountains, the pretender El-Hiba was routed, the southern capital (Marrakesh) was occupied, the Mahdist hordes were dispersed or driven back into the deserts. Peace soon reigned over the plains, and an extended line of military posts secured the frontiers against the wild mountaineers, while south of Marrakesh friendly relations began with the great Kaid, who as almost independent princes controlled these regions. The line of military posts was steadily pushed forward, while at each advance the pacified country behind was ordered and civilized. The native government was reformed and strengthened; local administration was organized, and a genuine development of the natural resources of the country initiated. With tact and patience the goodwill of the inhabitants was sought and in large measure attained.

(7) MOROCCO DURING THE GREAT WAR (1914-18)

The work of pacification and consolidation had made a good beginning when the Great War broke out, bringing with it, to those who held in their hands the fortunes of Morocco, new anxieties and dangers. To the inevitable repercussion of the European War upon the native mind were added deliberately-organized intrigues by enemy agents, who availed themselves of all the old sources of disturbance and stirred up all elements of disorder.

Yet this ceaseless German propaganda never attained its main object of provoking a general insurrection throughout French Morocco. The untiring French vigilance and military activity were supported by the great Kaids, who remained loyal and again and again checked attempted risings. Rebellions were suppressed, communications temporarily interrupted were restored, reverses were made good, new posts were constantly established, and the area of effective occupation was steadily increased. Thus Taflelt was definitely occupied in December 1917 and a French Resident installed.

When the Protectorate was established in 1912 the effectively occupied area was 88,000 square kilometres in extent. On January 1, 1914, it was 163,000 square kilometres, but by July 1, 1917, it had increased to 235,000 square kilometres. Moreover, despite the constant troubles and intrigues, the French found it possible not only to replace their regular troops in the country by territorial battalions, but even to employ on European soil elements from the native military forces, who distinguished themselves by their bravery and skill.

The final German collapse found El-Hiba still troublesome in the south, and Raisuli's attitude is still

ambiguous. In spite of all these difficulties the French grip of Morocco was never relaxed throughout the war, and the French administration triumphed over all the added perils with which the European conflict threatened it. The Protectorate proved to France during the war a source of strength rather than of weakness.

III. SOCIAL AND POLITICAL CONDITIONS

(1) RELIGIOUS

NOMINALLY and superficially the native inhabitants of Morocco are orthodox Musulmans of the Malekite rite, but beneath the surface there are traces of old Moslem heresies, and still deeper persistent survivals of pre-Islamic beliefs and practices. Everywhere there prevail the belief in magic, the cult of stones and trees, and the fear of evil spirits. But what, above all, characterizes the religion of Morocco, as of all north-western Africa, is the veneration paid to dead or living saints (*marabuts*). The centre of such worship is, in the case of a deceased saint, his tomb, around which often lies a *zawiya* (a sort of monastery) occupied by his descendants. Saintship is acquired by good works, by asceticism, by learning, and even by madness or imbecility. The *baraka* or divine gift is generally hereditary in the family of the original saint, and his family often live on the offerings of the faithful. Female saints are not uncommon. The influence of a saint is often highly localized, but some enjoy a widespread repute. A similar veneration is paid to the Shurfa (Sherifs), reputed descendants of the Prophet through his daughter Fatima. The whole of Morocco may be regarded as partitioned into the spheres of influence of different saints or Sherifs and their living representatives. Each tribe, city, and district tends to have a patron saint of its own, to whom more reverence is paid than to the Sultan himself. This worship of saints, though not strictly orthodox, is not felt to be

inconsistent with the profession of monotheism. The *zawiyas* have frequently been centres of resistance to foreign influence, but undoubtedly they have also not seldom exercised locally a beneficent influence as sanctuaries for the poor and oppressed, and as supplying the lack of tribunals for the settlement of disputes. In a word, the Marabuts and Sherifs are the greatest religious and political powers in Morocco. They and the communities specially devoted to them are potential centres of fanatical resistance to foreign penetration and control of their districts, but they have helped to maintain some semblance of order and respect for rights. Their power is weakened by internal dissensions and the ruinous management of the property belonging to them.

In Morocco, as in all north-western Africa, much influence is exercised by the numerous religious confraternities. These are widespread associations whose members profess certain common doctrines and practise certain common observances. Some are mainly or purely religious in character, or not much more than charitable societies, but often are not free from the suspicion of aiming at a political rôle. In Morocco the most powerful of these is the Taibiya or Tuhama Order, the head of which is the Sherif of Wazzan. His estates are large, and he claims a certain independence of the Sultan. The present Sherif is a protégé of France and is in good relations with the Sultan. His influence is chiefly religious, and his person is regarded with great reverence.

The most striking character of Moroccan Mohammedanism is a narrow intolerance, but the fanaticism which has often excited alarm in Europeans is not so much anti-Christian as anti-foreign, and almost more political than religious. In the cities these feelings are dissembled, but are not less deep than among the

country and mountain tribes. The desert populations in the south are easily and dangerously aroused to action against the infidel. But of recent years the combination of firmness and tact has greatly diminished the suspicions and fears of the Mohammedan population and so lessened the risk of religious movements.

Jews are found widely but unequally distributed over Morocco. They are scrupulously observant of their religious practices, but are at a low level of morality and education.

(2) POLITICAL

On March 30, 1912, the French Protectorate over Morocco came into being. Henceforward the Sultan is, in all his relations with foreign Powers, represented by the Resident-General of the French Republic, and the whole of the internal affairs of the Moroccan Empire are under French supervision and control, subject, however, to the provision of the Franco-Spanish treaty of 1912 as regards the Spanish zone. The city of Tangier, with its environs, was also by various agreements with the Powers interested assigned a special character, and still constitutes a sort of international zone; its future status remains unsettled, the war having suspended discussion of the question.

(3) EDUCATIONAL

Before the establishment of the Protectorate the means of education in Morocco were elementary. Such education as existed was closely connected with religion. The native 'University' of Fez enjoyed some repute, but had fallen into decay. Schools for natives, principally intended to spread a knowledge and use of French, have now been established in several of the principal cities. The *Alliance israélite universelle* has also, in the cities, started schools for Jews. There are

French schools for Europeans in some of the chief centres. As a rule, except among the higher class in the cities, the natives are illiterate; and, owing to the suspicion of religious propaganda, efforts at educational reform have to be cautiously pursued.

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS

The determining factors of Moroccan history have always been its geography and ethnography. Its wide tracts of extremely fertile and easily cultivable soil have from the earliest times attracted invaders from the east, and still more from the deserts of the south. Its long coast-line, lying as the country does along two trade-routes—a Mediterranean and an Atlantic—threatened the security of European traders and voyagers for long years when the Barbary and Sallee rovers, issuing out from innumerable coves and creeks, were the pests of the seas. Then, when piracy was suppressed, reports of Morocco's mineral resources excited the attention of competing Powers and stimulated international rivalry.

But appropriation, conquest, and indeed any settled native government of the country, have been rendered extraordinarily difficult by its internal geographical features, as well as by the resolute, fearless, and independent character of the mass of its Berber inhabitants.

While indeed Morocco lies open to penetration from all sides and can be traversed to the Atlantic by the open valley corridor of the Innawen and Sebu rivers; while even the lofty chains of the Atlas have proved an insufficient protection to the rich plains and table-lands of the north-west against invading hordes; yet this vast tangled central mountain mass and also the region lying behind the Mediterranean seaboard have always been a refuge and harbourage alike for moun-

taineers defiant of any central government and for refugees from invaders who have found themselves unable to pursue their advantage up from the conquered oases and plains into the mountains.

In consequence Morocco has never for any length of time formed a political unity or become genuinely subject to a single central government. Even the so-called Sherifian Empire is a misnomer and little better than a diplomatic fiction. By far the greater part of the country remained to all its titular rulers *pays insoumis* (*bled es-siba*), and gave to them at best a grudging, nominal, and precarious allegiance. Aspirants to empire have had, for the most part, to content themselves with the occupation of the more important cities of the interior and on the coasts with the control of the neighbouring plains and oases. Hence Morocco has always been a land of fierce internal dissension and disorder as well as a danger to civilization.

But the natural resources of the land are capable of development; the economic basis of its life may be, both in its internal structure and in its external relations, greatly altered and the valuable qualities of its population diverted to different uses, if the peculiarities of its situation, as revealed in its history, are constantly taken into account.

IV. ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

(A) MEANS OF COMMUNICATION

(1) INTERNAL

(a) *Roads, Paths, and Tracks*

THE only metalled roads in Morocco are those which have been made since 1908 within the French zone. The greater number of these are in the pacified districts of western Morocco. A system of trunk roads of a total length of 870 miles was planned, and early in 1917 the greater part of it had been completed. This is designed as the nucleus of a network of secondary roads, now in process of construction, serving the agricultural districts of the Gharb, Shawiya, Dukkala, and Abda. The trunk roads connect the coast towns from Mahediya to Mogador with one another, and with the inland cities. In 1916 the system was extended to penetrate the Tadla region. The roads are fit for motors and heavy traffic at all seasons; they are 26 ft. wide, with a chaussée of 13 ft., and wherever possible a total width of 100 ft. has been kept for the passage of caravans and to permit of future widening of the road. In eastern Morocco road-making is not yet so far advanced, but a road is in process of construction to connect Fez with Algeria *via* Taza and Ujda. Most of the existing bridges are those erected by the military engineers during the pacification, and are of wood, but a permanent bridge has been thrown over the Umm er-Rebia on the Casablanca-Marrakesh road, and others are in contemplation.

The whole country is crossed by a network of tracks. The course of these is seldom well marked; and in the

plains a dozen tracks or more often run parallel with one another, a new one being started when the old have been worn inconveniently deep. Their surface varies according to the nature of the soil over which they pass; in the *tirs* or black soil they are knee-deep in mud between December and March, but where, as among the Rehamna, the ground is harder, they are practicable in places for wheeled traffic at all seasons. They run straight ahead, paying no attention to the steepness of the gradients; they cross the rivers by fords, very rarely by bridges. In the mountain regions they tend to follow the beds of streams or wind among enormous boulders. The natives seldom attempt to engineer these hill paths, but occasionally they are cut in the rock; they are in general impracticable for wheeled traffic. In the Rif the tracks are especially poor and difficult. On some routes there are alternative winter and summer tracks. Where this is the case, the winter track is generally, in spite of the mud and the swollen rivers, through the low ground, as farther up the torrents tear down the slopes and sweep away the tracks; the summer track is in the mountains, where the temperature is cooler and the water-supply more plentiful. Except in the extreme south, there is a good water-supply along the routes; wells are frequent, and sometimes water is collected by the roadside in shallow pools (*ghedir*).

Deep ravines and unbridged rivers form the two great obstacles to travelling; they frequently interrupt the native tracks, and make wheeled traffic difficult even in dry weather. Where the country is flat, the rivers, both large and small, commonly have very steep banks, and their depth varies greatly and often suddenly with the season. Outside the French zone bridges are few. At some of the most frequented

passages over the larger rivers there are ferries, but even in summer the crossing of numbers of men or animals would present serious difficulties. In times of flood travellers have often to wait hours or days until the water subsides.

Some of the tracks are called *Makhzen*, or Government, tracks. They are seldom any better than the other native paths, but the more important of them have caravanserais (*nzala*) at intervals along their course. These are composed occasionally of houses, but more frequently of huts occupied by armed troops to guard the routes by day and protect travellers from robbery at night. The security they afford is only relative. The natives incline to avoid them, preferring to make long détours in order to escape paying the small sum charged for shelter.

(b) Rivers

Most of the rivers which drain into the Atlantic are either diverted for irrigation purposes before reaching the coast or else owing to evaporation are reduced to mere trickles. All of them have sand-bars at their mouths, and are constantly silting up. The *Umm er-Rebia* is available for local boat traffic in parts of its lower course. The *Wad Lekkus* (*Lukkos*) is navigable by boats as far as El-Ksar, and is much used for irrigation. The *Wad Sebu* would be more useful for irrigation than for navigation. The question of its navigability has been seriously studied in recent years, especially in connexion with the development of the port of Kenitra. At present the bar at its mouth makes it inaccessible at low tide to craft drawing more than 10 ft. Vessels of about this draught and of 1,200 tons burden brought the materials for the railway to a temporary quay at Kenitra ($10\frac{1}{2}$ miles by river from the bar). The influence of the tide ends about 55 miles up-stream at

the ford of Sidi Abdallah ; here the river-bed is blocked for 7–10 miles by a large bank of mud, sand, and pebbles, covered when the stream is at its lowest by not more than 2 ft. of water. Above this obstacle to Muelin el-Bab, where the rapids begin, the depth, except at four fords, reaches 13 ft. It appears that, if the great bank were removed, the Sebu could be made navigable for 155 miles from its mouth.

(c) Railways

Light Railways.—All the existing lines, except that between Lalla Maghrnia and Ujda, are light military railways with a gauge of 2 ft. (0·60 metre). They are now open for civil use and commercial traffic, although priority is naturally given to military requirements. The use of the railway by civilians is limited to approved goods ; these have to be consigned to certain chief stations, where there is a *Commandant d'Étapes*, but in special cases intermediate stations may be used.

As the work of pacification proceeds the lines are constantly being extended ; the intention is ultimately to widen the gauge to 4 ft. 8½ in. (1·44 metres), and to replace the present wooden bridges by stone ones. The speed of the trains is 6–8½ miles an hour. The train-service is supplemented by a quicker service of motor trollies, which carry the post and a few passengers. There are no passenger compartments except between Casablanca and Rabat ; elsewhere trains are made up of open trucks, with a wooden covering over those used for passengers.

In western Morocco there are two systems : (1) Casablanca (Dar el-Beida) to Fez *via* Rabat, Sallee, Kenitra, Dar Bel Hamri, and Meknes (210 miles). There is no line from Rabat to Sallee ; the crossing is by ferry. (2) Casablanca to Kaid Tounsi *via* Ber Reshid (96 miles). The extension to Marrakesh is in process of construc-

tion. There is a branch line from Ber Reshid to Ben Ahmed ($30\frac{1}{2}$ miles), the extension of which to Wad Zem and Khenifra is also in process of construction.

In eastern Morocco there is one system, viz. from Taza to Ujda (145 miles). At Ujda there is a station of the standard-gauge line (4 ft. $8\frac{1}{2}$ in.) which connects at Lalla Maghnia with the West Algerian Railway. Between Taza and Ujda there are forty-two bridges, generally with one or two arches. The bridge over the Wad Za is of timber on piles; that over the Muluya at Dar el-Kaid has piers of ferro-concrete resting on piles, and is floored with metal girders, carrying both road and rails. At the Msun the height is 1,735 ft., at the Muluya bridge 1,148 ft., at El-Agreb 1,551 ft., and at the Wad Za 1,190 ft.; the line then ascends by a series of gradients to 2,211 ft. at Naima, and descends to Ujda (1,781 ft.). Three types of locomotives are in use: Dac (8 tons), Mallet (18 tons), and Weinknecht (14 tons); the last two have only three axles, and are too heavy for the line. The water-supply is poor, as it is all chalky or saline or contains magnesia. A special service of motor trollies carries the post and not more than five passengers from Ujda to Taza in one day; otherwise the journey takes two days. Between Ujda and Oran there is a train daily each way (ten hours). An extension from Fez to Taza (53 miles) linking up the western and eastern light-railway systems is in contemplation.

Tangier-Fez Line.—By the Franco-German agreement of November 1911 it was stipulated that no railways other than light railways for purely military use should be laid in Morocco, until the completion of the standard-gauge line from Tangier to Fez. When the outbreak of war relieved France of this condition the survey for the French part had been completed. The line is planned to run by El-Ksar (Alcazar) and Meknes;

at mile 18 it leaves the international zone; thence to mile 67 it runs through the Spanish zone (passing El-Ksar at mile 62), and reaches Meknes at mile 157. Between Tangier and the point at which it leaves the Spanish zone, the gradients are sometimes difficult; from Suk el-Arbaa in the Gharb to Sidi Kassem (nearly 40 miles) the course is perfectly level; thence to Meknes it is difficult and steep in the valley of the Wad Ghedem; from Meknes to Fez it is again level except where it crosses the rivers.

Projected Lines.—The general programme for the future permanent railway system of the Protectorate includes :

1. The conversion to standard European gauge (4 ft. 8½ in.) of the existing light military railways.
2. A line from Petitjean on the Tangier-Fez line to Kenitra.
3. A line from Kaid Tunsi to Marrakesh, in continuation of the line from Casablanca to Kaid Tunsi.
4. A line from Taza to Fez, connecting Fez by Taza and Ujda with Algeria.

The construction of a continuous route from western Morocco to Algiers will, however, be difficult and costly; and because of its length the through line may, apart from political reasons, never have more than a secondary importance. The connexion of Fez with the Atlantic coast and of Algeria with the country as far as Taza is of much greater commercial value. There is a difference of opinion as to whether the contemplated standard-gauge line from Casablanca to Marrakesh should follow the present military line or the road.

(d) *Posts, Telegraphs, and Telephones*

Posts.—Before the establishment of the French Protectorate various Powers had post offices of their own in Morocco, and there was also a purely inland postal service

under the Sherifian Government. The only foreign post offices which remained at the end of 1915 were those of Great Britain at the principal ports and also at Fez, Meknes, El-Ksar (Alcazar), and Marrakesh. France retains her post office at Tangier. Within her own zone Spain has post offices at the port towns. In the French Protectorate the French and Sherifian post services have since 1913 been combined under a single administration, the Moroccan Post, Telegraph, and Telephone Office, which also undertakes money order business and parcels post. It is well organized, and the number of post offices is increasing (thirty in January 1914); on many of the trunk roads the postal service is by motor. There is a daily post to and from Europe *via* Cadiz and Algeciras, and a weekly parcels post to and from the United Kingdom.

Telegraphs.—Within the French zone several thousands of kilometres of telegraph line have been put up for military purposes, and are now in use. The lines, which start from Rabat and Casablanca, are constantly being extended as the pacification advances; as progress is definitely secured they are handed over to the civil administration, but even while they are still under military control their use is open to the public. Communication between western and eastern Morocco is assured by a line from Fez to Taza, which is probably already working; this line is linked up at Ujda with the Algerian system. Spain has a line across her zone from Tangier to Arbawa in the French zone; it is open for use by the French during certain hours.

Wireless telegraphy was an earlier installation (dating from 1906); the stations are now under the control of the Moroccan Post, Telegraph, and Telephone Office. They are available for public use, as are also the long-distance army installations at Fez, Marrakesh,

and Agadir, and those belonging to the *Makhzen* (Government) at Tangier and Mogador.

Telephones.—A certain number of lines (under civil administration) have existed since 1913. They are much used by the natives; and are being rapidly extended. In 1914 the coast towns were connected from Mazagan to Rabat, and from Rabat there was a line to Kenitra, which is intended in the end to form part of a circuit uniting Rabat with Fez *via* Meknes.

(2) EXTERNAL

(a) Ports

Accommodation.—At no place on the coasts of Morocco is there any good natural harbour. No Moroccan port is really well sheltered, and along the whole seaboard every natural anchorage is unsafe during certain winds, although the dangerous quarters are not the same for all ports. On the Atlantic coast there are hardly any ports where a vessel can anchor in bad weather. A good port in Morocco is, therefore, only a comparative term, and no expenditure of money or labour will ever make the case otherwise. No artificially made port as yet exists in a finished state.

There is no port where vessels can lie at the quay, and in all of them lighters are required. In the past the provision of these was a monopoly of the Sherifian Government; in the ports of the French zone it passed into the hands of the *Service des Travaux Publics* and has been developed to keep pace with the increase of commerce.

The efforts of the French to provide a great port have been concentrated on *Casablanca* (*Dar el-Beida*), the situation of which offers no natural advantages. The anchorage is dangerous in winter, owing to foul bottom and strong current. South-west winds are particularly unfavourable. Considerable harbour works have been

planned and partly executed, but it is not certain how far the natural disadvantages can be overcome. The design includes a small inner harbour and two large quays for the protection of the outer port; the inner harbour is bounded on the west by a quay 240 yards long, which is already finished, and on the east by a quay 400 yards long, which is being built. This inner harbour can shelter small vessels, lighters, &c.; it supplies the needs of the present commerce. Docks, warehouses, cranes, &c., are to be provided.

In the meantime *Fedala* (12½ miles to the north of Casablanca) has, owing to its greater natural advantages, become a considerable port. Vessels can sometimes anchor here when anchorage is impossible at Casablanca, although the port has dangers, especially in north to west winds.

Rabat, still farther north, lies at the mouth of the Wad Bu Regreg, facing Salée on the opposite bank, and is a small port with a mole 200 ft. long, a dock for fishing-boats, and a quay 260 ft. long; it has a specially troublesome bar. Anchorage is comparatively safe; it is one of the few ports of the Atlantic coast that have no special warnings in sailing directions.

Mahediya lies between Rabat and Larache at the mouth of the Sebu, again with a troublesome bar. Anchorage is unsafe in south-west winds. At *Kenitra* (10½ miles up-stream) is a fine expanse of water with a depth of over three fathoms. Its situation is healthier than that of Mahediya, and the French hope to create an important port. It is on the Fez and Meknes Railway, and is the point of departure of a system of railway lines intended to draw the trade of the Gharb to the ports in the French zone. The projects for its development have been at a standstill during the war.

In southern Morocco there are four ports more or

less capable of development : Mazagan, Saffi, Mogador, and Agadir. They are all exposed to westerly winds. *Mazagan* presents perhaps the greatest possibilities, as it lies in a small bay, where good shelter could be secured by a breakwater ; *Saffi* offers a tiny but well-sheltered roadstead ; *Mogador* (*Suerah*)—at present the best of the southern ports—lies in a channel between the land and Mogador Island ; *Agadir* has a calmer sea and is more sheltered than the others from the prevailing north winds.

Tides.—On the Atlantic coast the tidal wave arrives at Mogador at the same time as it reaches Cadiz. The rise at the spring tides is between 8 and 12 ft. Violent tidal races are frequently produced on this coast.

Nature of Trade.—In this connexion the division of the ports of Morocco between the Spanish and the French zones of influence is of capital importance. Spain, holding all the Mediterranean coast towns except Tangier, and also Laraish, has in her hands the best natural inlets and outlets for the trade of eastern Morocco and Fez, and, were these ports properly developed and the necessary railways built, they could probably compete successfully with those under French control, including those in Algeria.

The international port of Tangier is also a rival for the trade of the Fez district, and this will be more than ever the case when the Tangier-Fez Railway is built. The superior shipping conveniences of Tangier also attract to it many of the products of the Gharb, for which the natural outlets are Laraish and Mahediya.

Mahediya and its companion port of Kenitra are likely under French management, with the help of the Fez-Meknes Railway, to divert to themselves from Laraish more and more of the Gharb trade. Rabat serves the same district. Casablanca and Fedala have behind them the rich Shawiya region, and also that of

the Tadla, into which the French are now penetrating. If the harbour development of Casablanca answers expectation, that port should be the outlet for much of the commerce of Marrakesh. That city, which is the capital of the south and the goal of the caravans from beyond the Atlas Mountains, has a trade at least as important as that of Fez. At present, although Saffi is the nearest port, most of the imports to Marrakesh come through Mazagan, and the exports are divided between Mazagan and Mogador. All the southern ports have rich districts behind them: Mazagan is on the edge of the Dukkala province, a region of fertile 'black soil'; Mogador is the natural port of the Huz district and has also much of the trade of the plain of the Sus; in free competition for the latter, however, Agadir should always have the advantage.

(b) Shipping Lines

The *Compagnie Générale Transatlantique* and the *Compagnie de Navigation Paquet* maintain regular services, the former from Bordeaux and the latter from Marseilles, to Tangier and Casablanca. Each line has three sailings per month. Their boats are of 4,500–5,000 tons, much larger and more comfortable than those of the lines connecting Marseilles with Algeria. Vessels of about the same size belonging to the *Société Orano-Marocaine* ply between Moroccan ports and Oran, and there are also coastal services from the Atlantic ports of Morocco to Oran, Algiers, and Tunis. Connexion with Europe is also maintained by Spanish, Dutch, and British lines.

(c) Cables

The French Government has cables from Tangier to Cadiz and Oran, and one from Casablanca to Brest.

(B) INDUSTRY

(1) AGRICULTURE

(a) *Products of Commercial Value*

Agriculture of various kinds is the main, and indeed almost the sole, industry of the natives. According to the district and the habits of the tribes it takes the form of the cultivation of annual crops, of stock-keeping, or of fruit-growing. For all three occupations Morocco is well adapted. For the first there are, especially on the western coast, great expanses of extremely fertile soil; for the second there are vast stretches of pasture land, especially in the steppes; and for the third good conditions exist in most parts of Morocco.

The climate of Morocco is, in general, very favourable to annual crops. Those grown are chiefly *cereals* (wheat, barley, maize, sorghum), and broad beans, chick-peas, and lentils. Only a small part of the available land has been brought under cultivation, and there is seldom more produced than is required for local consumption. *Cotton* has been tried and may succeed. *Sugar-cane* was once grown in the plain of the Sus, but the climate is not suitable to it.

For the keeping of *live-stock* there are abundant resources in Morocco. Many tribes combine cattle-farming with the production of crops. In eastern Morocco, however, the population is almost entirely pastoral, and even in the Atlas Mountains some tribes live exclusively by their flocks and herds. The breeds are, on the whole, poor, and the methods of pastoral farming still primitive. Certain districts of Morocco are specially adapted for horned cattle; the oxen, which are kept in considerable numbers, are of a better

kind than those of the other parts of North-west Africa. There are large numbers of sheep and goats ; and horses, mules, and asses are bred.

Fruit-tree cultivation is carried on largely by the help of irrigation. Almost all the towns of Morocco are surrounded by magnificent orchards and gardens. In the Tells the trees chiefly cultivated are the olive, the fig, the vine, the orange, the lemon, the pomegranate, the peach, and the apricot ; almonds constitute the largest export from Morocco. In the south the date-palm is the chief vegetable product.

(b) *Methods of Cultivation*

The native methods of agriculture are primitive. The crops are divided into early or autumn-sown and late or spring-sown ; sometimes different tribes reap the one and the other from the same fields. In reaping only the ears are gathered, the straw being left standing for the cattle. For security against marauders the grain is often stored in fortified villages or barns or in carefully hidden store-houses, in which it remains in good condition for many years.

Irrigation is employed for the cultivation of the date-palm even in the north of Morocco, while in the south it is indispensable. Many methods are employed : sometimes the water is drawn off by canals, sometimes underground conduits are constructed, while in other cases the water is raised by mechanical means to a higher level. Occasionally the natives are reduced to the laborious watering of their crops from wells. Much might easily be done to extend the use of irrigation, as some of the great rivers flow through fertile regions at a level above the surrounding plain.

(c) Forestry

In the region of the Middle Atlas, as in the Spanish zone, the cedar is abundant. It covers also large areas in the upper valley of the Muluya and in the neighbourhood of Khenifra. The timber is excellent for building purposes.

Extensive forests of the cork-oak exist in various parts, the most important being the Forest of Mamora, which stretches inland from the Atlantic coast near Mahediya and Sallee. It is estimated that from this forest, the extent of which is 310,000 acres, cork to the value of 3,500,000 francs could be obtained each year. The total area of the cork-oak forests is stated to be between 555,000 and 620,000 acres.

Other trees which would probably repay exploitation are the *thuya*, especially the variety producing resin sandarac, and the ironwood tree. The latter is said to cover 500,000 acres ; the natives use its wood for fuel, the leaves and the pulp of the fruit as food for goats and camels, and the almonds for the production of oil.

(d) Land Tenure

Apart from the State domain (*Makhzen* property) and land in mortmain (*habus*, belonging to *zawiyas*,¹ mosques, &c.), the land is either private property (*melk*), or communal property, or *gish* land. Private property is found where the soil is rich ; in the grazing lands communal holding is normal. Among the Berbers of the Atlas Mountains, there is a peculiar form of tenure : according to the season a tribe of the mountains and a tribe of the plains alternately crop the same fields, each family always returning each year to the same lands and regarding them as its own. Among some tribes occupation is necessary to constitute ownership. *Gish* land is considered administratively as

¹ See above, p. 31.

domain burdened with usufruct rights ; it belongs to the Sultan as overlord, and he permits the use of it to certain tribes in return for the rendering of military services.

In 1913 a new system of land tenure was introduced, resembling, though not identical with, that existing in Tunis. It is not as yet universally applied in the Protectorate. The title of the professed owner to the land, together with any obligations incumbent on the land, is entered on a roll and made public. All oppositions to the claims made during a fixed period are considered by a tribunal, and, if they are allowed, the roll is amended accordingly. At the end of the period no further claims are admitted, and the ownership of the land is established as stated on the roll.

A further innovation, made in the year 1914, is the taxation of increases in land values. The tax is leviable only where the difference in the price of sale is greater by 50 per cent. than the previous price of purchase together with allowances for the expenses of acquisition, for improvements and interest on capital amounting to 31 per cent. Its object is to prevent wild speculation in land.

Makhzen property and *habus* are at times let, in some cases on terms which give to the tenants apparent ownership. As abuses have arisen through the sale of land by persons who are not the true owners, regulations governing the sale of land have been introduced. The title of the vendor and the freedom of the land from the obligations attached to *Makhzen* property and *habus* are investigated by a kadi. Even the transfer of land from one European to another has to be accomplished under the kadi's supervision.

The right of acquiring land in Morocco was only gradually conceded to foreigners, and even now, except in the towns and their environs, purchase is attended with so many difficulties that it is frequently replaced

by a registered contract of partnership between the foreigner and a native partner. Various incidental advantages which have thereby accrued to the native have furthered the increase of these partnerships.

(2) FISHERIES

Along the whole of the Atlantic coast, soles, turbot, bream, and mullet are common. The south is visited by shoals of the *Sciaena aquila*, a large fish reaching sometimes 100–110 lb. in weight. Off the coast of Casablanca mackerel are fished. Crayfish, prawns, oysters, and mussels abound, as do also the tunny, pilchard, sardine, and a species of shad.

(3) MINERALS

Copper has been traced on the southern slopes of the High Atlas, and in the Sus basin, where exploitation is being carried on by the natives.

Gold is stated to exist in the district of Taza, and at Tazeroualt, where *silver* also is reported.

Iron is said to exist in the Atlas Mountains between the district of Haha and Wad Nefis. In the north-east, important deposits have been found at Tarhilest, 15½ miles to the south of El Aïoun, and some of these have been worked.

Phosphates have been discovered in the district of Tadla.

The acquisition of mining rights within the French zone, whether for search or working, depends upon priority of application. The rights must be so exercised as not to interfere with the customary rights of the natives to extract certain substances. Phosphates and nitrates are subject to special rules. Salt-mines are completely reserved by the Government. The use of quarries and turbaries is left to the proprietor of the soil. Mining taxes are levied according to the area of

the claim or, if the minerals are for export, according to the value of the output. The regulations are laid down in a code, which is applied by vizirial decrees to districts where there is assured security, and they are administered by an arbitration commission of three members, one nominated by the Government, one by the Power whose subject is interested, and one by the King of Norway from among Norwegian judges or ex-judges. Since the institution of this system there have not been many applications.

(4) MANUFACTURES

Manufactures are practically confined to the towns; in the rural parts each family is occupied in spinning, weaving, and grinding corn for itself, and even in the villages there are few artisans. The chief native manufactures are arms, dress fabrics, carpets, leather, pottery, and goldsmith's work. But more and more of the products which are sold in Morocco as of native manufacture are made in Europe and imported for sale. Since 1912 the requirements of the army of occupation and the creation of public works, harbour works, railways, roads, &c., have led to a great development of European industries. In particular, many flour-mills have been started.

(C) COMMERCE

(1) DOMESTIC

Internal commerce is in general restricted and local, and is for the most part confined to the towns and their immediate vicinity. Each of the chief towns has its specialities. At Fez are sold fine woollen and silken fabrics, velvet embroideries, worked leather, fine goldsmith's work, and pottery; at Marrakesh, leather goods

and arms ; at Rabat and Saffi, carpets, rugs, mats, and coarse fabrics. But more and more, as has been said above, the native products are being displaced by goods of European origin. In all the great centres there exist markets for slaves (except where slave-dealing is forbidden), oxen, sheep, horses, camels, &c. The goods are generally sold by a crier. There exist also shops where the makers sell their own products. Every trade has its own quarter.

In Fez local trade has remained in the hands of the Mohammedans ; the richer merchants form the aristocracy of the city. In the heart of the old city is the commercial quarter proper ; there the *suks* or bazaars are formed of long lanes covered with screens of reed, and the wholesale merchants have large stores (*fonduks*) with great courts. The *suks* at Fez and Marrakesh are of a peculiar kind known as *kissariya* ; they are roofed in. The rural parts of the country have *suks* of another kind, where the goods produced on the country-side are exchanged ; these are open markets generally held on a fixed day of the week in some wide space near a road. They are frequented by travelling traders, who make regular rounds.

From time to time the wealthier natives visit the towns, arriving either singly or in caravans, mules and asses in the north, camels in the south, being the chief beasts of burden.

In the south, especially in the Sus basin and the Wad Nun, there are great annual fairs which last for several days. In the Sahara district there are three principal fairs which act as centres of exchange in slaves, ostrich feathers, gold, ivory, &c., between Morocco and the Sudan, but this commerce has been inconsiderable since the diminution of the slave-trade.

Europeans are now taking a larger part in commerce, chiefly in catering for the army of occupation and the

new population that has swarmed into the country. They have established many shops and retail businesses at the ports and in the cities of the interior, notably at Fez and Marrakesh.

(2) FOREIGN

(a) *Exports and Imports*

Quantities and Values.—In 1913 the value of the total foreign trade of Morocco amounted to 326,700,000 francs, an increase of $17\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on the total for the previous year. The increase was entirely in the import trade, which rose by about $38\frac{1}{3}$ per cent., the exports falling at the same time by 37 per cent. Of the total value of the foreign trade of Morocco in that year, 221,607,250 francs represented the trade by the Algerian frontier and the ports of the French Protectorate. This was an increase of 24 per cent. on the figures for the previous year, and was accounted for by a rise of 63 per cent. in the imports and a decline of 40 per cent. in the exports.

The general decrease in the value of the export trade was due mainly to the failure of the crops. The export of almonds, wool, and hides and skins increased in value, and hence, although all countries were affected by the decline, France, which takes a large proportion of the wool and hides and skins, did not suffer so much as the United Kingdom, whose chief import from Morocco is barley.

The increase in the import trade was especially great in the case of the trade passing across the Algerian frontier. The value of this trade stood in the year 1913 at more than thirty times that of 1903, having increased by 70 per cent. in the year 1912–13. The largest part in the increase of the trade entering by the ports of the French Protectorate was taken by France, but

					<i>Imports.</i>		
					1911.	1912.	1913.
					<i>Francs.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
By the ports :							
Casablanca	22,163,975	40,181,775	69,404,500
Kenitra	—	—	1,573,860
Mazagan	7,628,375	13,255,150	18,670,350
Mogador	8,116,525	12,086,500	16,495,250
Rabat	6,555,050	13,096,450	24,195,190
Saffi	8,435,300	13,859,400	19,455,800
By the Algerian frontier					16,362,000	18,674,000	31,632,000
Totals					69,261,225	111,153,275	181,426,950

The *countries of destination of exports* from Morocco by the ports of the French Protectorate (Casablanca, Kenitra, Mazagan, Mogador, Rabat, and Saffi) and by the Algerian frontier for the years 1911-13 were stated in the British Consular Reports to be as follows :

	1911. <i>Franks.</i>	1912. <i>Franks.</i>	1913. <i>Franks.</i>
By Algerian frontier :			
France	15,405,000	9,083,000	9,320,000
By French Moroccan ports :			
France, including Algeria and Tunis	12,278,100	13,931,600	11,957,500
Germany	16,630,450	17,506,500	8,299,700
Spain	4,663,000	5,929,700	4,386,700
United Kingdom and Gibraltar .	16,624,050	13,449,400	5,012,700
Other countries	4,837,200	7,270,200	1,203,700
Totals	70,437,800	67,170,400	40,180,300

The *countries of origin of imports* into Morocco by the ports of the French Protectorate (Casablanca, Kenitra, Mazagan, Mogador, Rabat, and Saffi) and by the Algerian frontier for the years 1911-13 were stated in the British Consular Reports to be as follows :

	1911.	1912.	1913.
	<i>Francs.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
By Algerian frontier :			
France	16,362,000	18,674,000	31,632,000
By French Moroccan ports :			
France, including Algeria and Tunis	20,399,600	35,998,100	79,013,900
Austria-Hungary	1,201,700	2,123,275	3,165,000
Belgium	1,555,900	2,687,675	6,632,900
Germany	5,573,850	9,539,850	13,177,700
Spain	1,253,125	2,463,500	3,999,900
Sweden	451,300	1,076,700	3,119,700
United Kingdom and Gibraltar	20,789,500	34,741,000	31,685,650
Other countries	1,674,250	3,849,175	9,000,200
Totals	69,261,225	111,153,275	181,426,950

(b) Customs and Tariffs

All goods imported by sea, unless especially excepted, are liable to an *ad valorem* duty of 10 per cent., irrespective of the country of origin ; they are also subject to a tax of $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., the proceeds of which are devoted to public works. In the case of silk, jewels, precious stones, wines, and distilled liquors of all kinds, the duty is only 5 instead of 10 per cent. Certain articles, when destined for re-exportation, are exempt from duty. The importation of weapons of war, except by special permission, is forbidden by the Act of Algeciras.

Specific taxes are levied on various articles of export, as, for example, live-stock, cereals, beeswax, and wool.

(D) FINANCE*(1) Public Finance*

The finances of Morocco, exclusive of the Spanish zone, which is financially autonomous, are under the control of a French official, the Director-General of Finance. Before the establishment of the French Protectorate, however, the Government of Morocco had contracted heavy debts, amounting to nearly 200,000,000 francs, and these have since been increased to a total of over 400,000,000 francs. For the service of the loans the most important sources of revenue were set aside : the customs duties (not including the $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. additional tax authorized by the Act of Algeciras, which is devoted to the construction of public works) ; the gate and market dues at the five chief ports ; the profits of the domain, within a radius of 6 miles from these ports ; half the proceeds of a tax on real property in towns, established in the ports in virtue of a regulation of January 10, 1908, and recently extended to the

principal towns of the interior ; and the proceeds of the tobacco monopoly conceded in 1910 to the Société Internationale de Régie Co-intéressée des Tabacs au Maroc. The total income from these sources in the year 1914-15 amounted, roughly, to 31,750,000 pesetas Hassani, or 22,700,000 francs, an excess of 9,700,000 francs over the sum required for the debt.

Of the revenues not assigned to the service of the debt, the most profitable are the $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. tax on imports, referred to above, which produced in 1914-15 over 4,000,000 francs ; the agricultural taxes, which include in western Morocco the *tertīb* on beasts of burden, horned cattle, and fruit trees, and in eastern Morocco the Arab taxes on agricultural products and on cattle (*achour* and *zekkat*), producing together 7,560,000 francs ; taxes on the consumption of alcohol and sugar (5,430,000 francs) ; market dues, other than those of the five ports (1,720,000 francs) ; the profits of the post, telegraph, and telephone services (1,500,000 francs), and of the domain (1,480,000 francs) ; and stamp duty on legal documents (1,450,000 francs). Against the unappropriated revenues the chief items of expenditure are the services of the various branches of administration and the subventions granted to the towns to meet the deficits on the municipal budgets.

(2) Currency

The native currency of Morocco is that called the Hassani or Azizi currency.¹ The unit is the Hassani peseta or franc, but almost immediately upon its introduction there was applied to it by the natives the traditional monetary system based on the *mitkal* and *ukiyat*. The most common coin is the Hassani dollar, corresponding to the 5-franc piece. In the

¹ The Hassani currency has been recently withdrawn in the French Protectorate.

Protectorate there circulates much French money in silver coins and notes of the *Banque de France* and *Banque de l'Algérie*. The only gold coins seen in Morocco are French 20-franc and 10-franc pieces, and, more rarely, British sovereigns and half-sovereigns. At Tangier and in northern Morocco Spanish pesetas and bank-notes also circulate. Bills of exchange and cheques are in use. The native coins now in circulation are :

Silver.—1 *rial* (Hassani or Azizi dollar), $\frac{1}{2}$ *rial*, $\frac{1}{4}$ *rial*, $\frac{1}{10}$ *rial* or *derham shrai*, $\frac{1}{20}$ *rial* or $\frac{1}{2}$ *derham shrai*.

Copper.—1, 2, and 4 *flus* (now used only in the interior and at some of the ports). New copper coins of 1, 2, 5, and 10 *muzunat* are also in circulation.

Tables

(1) Moroccan (Hassani or Azizi) currency :

3 <i>flus</i> (sing. <i>fels</i>)	= 1 <i>muzuna</i> .
4 <i>muzunat</i>	= 1 <i>derham</i> or <i>ukiya</i> (ounce).
10 <i>ukiyat</i>	= 1 <i>mitkal</i> (ducat).
12½ <i>mitkal</i>	= 1 <i>rial</i> (dollar).
5 <i>rials</i> (at par)	= £1.

(2) Spanish currency :

25 <i>centimos</i>	= 1 <i>real vellon</i> .
100 <i>centimos</i>	= 1 <i>peseta</i> .
5 <i>pesetas</i>	= 1 <i>douro</i> (dollar).
5 <i>douros</i> (at par)	= £1.

The rates of exchange at the ports are governed to a great extent by those ruling at Tangier, the difference being greater in Hassani than in Spanish money.

(3) Banking

The State Bank of Morocco was planned by the Conference of Algeciras, and possesses in consequence an international character. It is governed by a council of administration, comprising a member for each Power

signatory to the Act of Algeciras, and is regulated by a Moroccan high commissioner and four censors appointed by the Banks of England, Germany, Spain, and France. It was constituted the financial agent of the Government for the floating of loans, and its treasurer for the deposit of the revenue and the issue of the expenditure. It has a monopoly of the coinage and of the circulation of notes ; it has the power, though not the monopoly, of making advances to the Government.

The importance of the Bank as the treasury of the Government has been to some extent diminished since, in consequence of its lack of branches in the towns of the interior, it has been found necessary to create a General Treasury of the Protectorate. The Government has, nevertheless, continued to avail itself of the services of the State Bank, and the recent improvement in the terms agreed upon between the Government and the Bank is likely to result in the maintenance of these conditions.

APPENDIX

I.—CONVENTION DE MADRID DU 3 JUILLET 1880¹

Son Exc. le Président de la République française ; S. M. l'Empereur d'Allemagne ; S. M. l'Empereur d'Autriche ; S. M. le Roi des Belges ; S. M. le Roi de Danemark ; S. M. le Roi d'Espagne ; S. E. le Président des États-Unis d'Amérique ; S. M. la Reine du Royaume-Uni ; S. M. le Roi d'Italie ; S. M. le Sultan du Maroc ; S. M. le Roi des Pays-Bas ; S. M. le Roi de Portugal ; S. M. le Roi de Suède et de Norvège

Ayant reconnu la nécessité d'établir sur des bases fixes et uniformes l'exercice du droit de protection au Maroc, et de régler certaines questions qui s'y rattachent, ont nommé pour leurs plénipotentiaires à la conférence qui s'est ouverte à Madrid, savoir : . . .

. . . Lesquels, en vertu de leurs pleins pouvoirs, reconnus en bonne et due forme, ont arrêté les dispositions suivantes :

Art. I. Les conditions dans lesquelles la protection peut être accordée sont celles qui sont stipulées dans le traité britannique et espagnol avec le gouvernement marocain et dans la convention survenue entre ce gouvernement, la France et d'autres puissances, en 1863, sauf les modifications qui y sont apportées par la présente convention.

Art. II. Les représentants étrangers, chefs de mission, pourront choisir leurs interprètes et employés parmi les sujets marocains et autres.

Ces protégés ne seront soumis à aucun droit, impôt ou taxe quelconque, en dehors de ce qui est stipulé aux articles XII et XIII.

Art. III. Les consuls, vice-consuls ou agents consulaires, chefs de poste, qui résident dans les États du Sultan du Maroc, ne pourront choisir qu'un interprète, un soldat et deux domestiques parmi les sujets du Sultan, à moins qu'ils n'aient besoin d'un secrétaire indigène.

Ces protégés ne seront soumis non plus à aucun droit, impôt ou taxe quelconque, en dehors de ce qui est stipulé aux articles XII et XIII.

¹ A. Tardieu, *La Conférence d'Algésiras*, p. 475.

Art. IV. [Consular agents, &c.]

Art. V. [Ministers' right to select personal attendants, &c.]

Art. VI. La protection s'étend sur la famille du protégé, sa demeure est respectée . . .

La protection n'est pas héréditaire . . .

Art. VII. Les Représentants étrangers informeront par écrit le ministre des Affaires étrangères du choix qu'ils auront fait des employés.

Ils communiqueront chaque année audit ministre une liste nominative des personnes qu'ils protègent ou qui sont protégées par leur agents dans les États du Sultan du Maroc . . .

Art. VIII. Les agents consulaires remettront chaque année à l'autorité du pays qu'ils habitent une liste, revêtue de leur sceau, des personnes qu'ils protègent . . .

Art. IX. Les domestiques, fermiers et autres employés indigènes des secrétaires ou interprètes indigènes ne jouissent pas de la protection. Il en est de même pour les employés ou domestiques marocains des sujets étrangers . . .

Art. X. [No change in position of *censaux*.]

Art. XI. Le droit de propriété au Maroc est reconnu pour tous les étrangers . . .

Art. XII. Les étrangers et les protégés propriétaires ou locataires de terrains cultivés, ainsi que les censaux admis à l'agriculture, payeront l'impôt agricole . . .

Art. XIII. Les étrangers, les protégés et les censaux, propriétaires de bêtes de somme, payeront la taxe dite des portes . . .

Ladite taxe ne pourra être augmentée sans un nouvel accord avec les représentants des puissances.

Art. XIV. [Interpreters, secretaries, &c.]

Art. XV. [Moroccans naturalized abroad.]

Art. XVI. Aucune protection irrégulière ou officieuse ne pourra être accordée à l'avenir.

Les autorités marocaines ne reconnaîtront jamais d'autres protections, quelle que soit leur nature, que celles qui sont expressément arrêtées dans cette convention . . .

Art. XVII. Le droit au traitement de la nation la plus favorisée est reconnu par le Maroc à toutes les puissances représentées à la conférence de Madrid.

Art. XVIII. [Ratifications.]

Fait à Madrid, en treize exemplaires, le 3 juillet 1880.

II.—FRENCH AND ENGLISH DECLARATIONS AS TO TRIPOLI

(a) DECEMBER 14, 1900¹

M. Barrère to the Marquis Visconti-Venosta

Rome, le 14 décembre 1900.

M. le Ministre,

A la suite de la conclusion entre la France et la Grande-Bretagne de la Convention du 21 mars 1899, mon Gouvernement répondant à votre honorable prédécesseur eut l'occasion de lui donner par mon intermédiaire des éclaircissements de nature à dissiper toute équivoque sur la portée de cet instrument.

Depuis lors votre Excellence a exprimé l'avis que ces assurances, réitérées d'une manière plus explicite, contribueraient à affermir les bons rapports entre nos deux pays.

J'ai été en conséquence autorisé par le Ministre des Affaires Étrangères de faire communication à votre Excellence, en raison des relations amicales qui ont été établies entre la France et l'Italie et dans la pensée que cette explication tendrait à les améliorer encore, que la Convention du 21 mars 1899, en laissant en dehors du partage d'influence qu'elle sanctionne le Vilayet de Tripoli, marque pour la sphère d'influence française par rapport à la Tripolitaine Cyrénaïque une limite que le Gouvernement de la République n'a pas l'intention de dépasser, et qu'il n'entre pas dans ses projets d'interrompre les communications commerciales établies par les voies caravanières de Tripoli vers les régions visées par la susdite Convention.

Ces explications, que nous sommes convenus de tenir secrètes, contribueront, je n'en doute pas, à consolider sur ce point comme sur d'autres les relations amicales entre nos deux pays.

Veillez, etc.,

(Signé) BARRÈRE.²

¹ Correspondence, No. 8181, pp. 133, 134. A first step towards the establishment of good relations between France and Italy had been taken by the interchange of notes between M. Delcassé and Count Tornelli, 'en vue d'établir un *modus vivendi* commercial entre l'Italie et la France', on November 21, 1898. The commercial agreement therein contained paved the way for the political declaration here printed.

² This declaration was confirmed by a subsequent declaration, December 14, 1902 (Tardieu, *La Conférence d'Algésiras*, pp. 1, 61).

(b) MARCH 11, 1902

Lord Currie to Signor Prinetti

The Undersigned, Ambassador Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary of His Britannic Majesty, is authorised to declare, on behalf of His Majesty's Government, that the Agreement between Great Britain and France of the 21st March, 1899, laid down a line to the east and west of which respectively the two Signatory Powers bound themselves not to acquire territory or political influence in the regions traversed by the said line, but that the Agreement in no way purported to deal with the rights of other Powers, and that, in particular, as regards the Vilayet of Tripoli and the Mutessariflik of Benghazi, all such rights remain entirely unaffected by it.

The Undersigned is further authorized to give an assurance that His Britannic Majesty's Government have no aggressive or ambitious designs in regard to Tripoli as above described ; that they continue to be sincerely desirous of the maintenance of the *status quo* there as in other parts of the coast of the Mediterranean ; and that, if at any time an alteration of the *status quo* should take place, it would be their object that, so far as is compatible with the obligations resulting from the Treaties which at present form part of the public law of Europe, such alteration should be in conformity with Italian interests. This assurance is given on the understanding and in full confidence that Italy on her part has not entered and will not enter into arrangements with other Powers in regard to this or other portions of the coast of the Mediterranean of a nature inimical to British interests.

The Undersigned, &c.,

(Signed) CURRIE.

Rome, March 11, 1902.

III.—FRANCO-MOROCCAN AGREEMENT, JULY 20, 1901¹

Protocole intervenu entre M. Delcassé, Ministre des Affaires étrangères de la République française, et Si Abdelkerim ben

¹ *Documents Diplomatiques, Affaires du Maroc, 1901-5, p. 16, et seq.* This agreement was followed by two others, signed on April 26

Sliman, Ministre des Affaires étrangères et Ambassadeur plénipotentiaire de Sa Majesté Chérifienne auprès du Gouvernement de la République française, portant application et exécution du traité de 1845 dans le région du Sud-Ouest algérien

Le Gouvernement français et le Gouvernement chérifien se sont mis d'accord sur les stipulations suivantes dans le but de consolider les liens d'amitié existant entre eux et de développer leurs bons rapports réciproques, en prenant pour base le respect de l'intégrité de l'Empire Chérifien, d'une part, et, d'autre part, l'amélioration de la situation de voisinage immédiat, qui existe entre eux, par tous les arrangements particuliers que nécessitera ledit voisinage.

Art. I. Les dispositions du traité de paix, de bonne amitié et de délimitation, conclu entre les deux Puissances en 1845, sont maintenues, à l'exception des points visés dans les articles suivants :

Art. II. Le Makhzen pourra établir des postes de garde et de douane en maçonnerie ou sous une autre forme, à l'extrémité des territoires des tribus qui font partie de son Empire, depuis le lieu connu sous le nom de Teniet-esassi, jusqu'au qçar de Isch et au territoire de Figuig.

Art. III. Les gens des qçour de Figuig et de la tribu des Amour-Sahra continueront à user, comme par le passé, de leurs plantations, eaux, champs de culture, pâturages, etc., et, s'ils en possèdent au delà de la ligne du chemin de fer côté de l'Est, ils pourront en user entièrement, comme par le passé, sans qu'il puisse leur être suscité d'obstacle ou d'empêchement.

Art. IV. Le Gouvernement marocain pourra établir autant de postes de garde et de douane qu'il voudra du côté de l'Empire marocain, au delà de la ligne qui est considérée approximativement comme la limite de parcours des Doui Menia et des Ouled Djerir et qui va de l'extrémité du territoire de Figuig à Sidi-Eddaher, traverse l'Oued-Elkheroua et atteint, par le lieu connu sous le nom d'Elmorra, le confluent de l'Oued-Telzaza et de l'Oued-Guir. Il pourra également établir des postes de garde et de douane sur la rive occidentale de l'Oued-

and May 7, 1902 (*Documents Diplomatiques, Affaires du Maroc, 1901-5*, pp. 34, 39).

Guir, du confluent des deux rivières susdites jusqu'à 15 kilomètres au-dessus du qçar d'Igli.

De même, le Gouvernement français pourra établir des postes de garde et de douane sur la ligne voisine de Djenan-eddar, passant sur le versant oriental du Djebel Bechar et suivant cette direction jusqu'à l'Oued-Guir.

Art. V. La situation des habitants du territoire compris entre les lignes de postes des deux pays indiquées ci-dessus est réglée de la façon suivante :

Les gens des qçour du territoire susdit auront le choix de l'autorité qui les administrera et pourront, en tous cas, continuer à habiter sur leur territoire.

Art. VI. Tous les gens relevant de l'autorité algérienne qui possèdent des propriétés, plantations, eaux, champs, etc., sur le territoire de l'Empire marocain, pourront les administrer à leur gré. Il en sera de même pour ceux qui relèvent de l'autorité marocaine et qui possèdent des territoires sur le territoire algérien.

Art. VII. Dans le but de maintenir les bonnes relations entre les tribus voisines relevant des deux Gouvernements, d'établir la paix et de développer le commerce entre elles, les deux Gouvernements ont stipulé que leurs sujets respectifs pourraient se rendre librement sur le territoire compris entre les postes des deux pays et indiqué dans les articles 4 et 5, pour y faire du commerce ou dans tout autre but, et sans qu'on puisse leur réclamer de droits.

Art. VIII. Les deux Gouvernements ont convenu que les Commissaires indiqués à l'article 5 fixeraient sur place tous les points de garde et de douane spécifiés, pour le Gouvernement marocain, aux articles 2 et 4.

Art. IX. Il a été convenu entre les deux Gouvernements que désormais ils ne s'imputeraient pas réciproquement la responsabilité des réclamations qui surviendraient à l'avenir entre les tribus des deux pays et ne se réclameraient de ce fait aucune indemnité pécuniaire, cela dans le but d'éviter les difficultés qui sont soulevées périodiquement à ce sujet entre les deux Gouvernements.

Chacun des deux Gouvernements désignera annuellement deux Commissaires, l'un pour la région du Nord et l'autre pour la région du Sud, pour discuter et régler, au mieux et sans retard, les réclamations qui surviendront entre les tribus, et les au-

torités locales respectives leur prêteront l'appui nécessaire pour faire rendre justice par les intéressés.

Le Commissaire de Makhzen dans le Nord se rendra à Marnia pour étudier et régler les réclamations des tribus marocaines avec le Commissaire du Gouvernement de l'Algérie dans les conditions susénoncées. De même, le Commissaire du Makhzen dans la région du Sud se rendra dans la région de Djenan-eddar, pour étudier et régler les réclamations des tribus marocaines avec le Commissaire français, dans les conditions susénoncées.

De même le Commissaire du Gouvernement de l'Algérie pour les réclamations des tribus algériennes dans la région du Nord se rendra à Oudjda, et le Commissaire pour les réclamations de la région du Sud se rendra à Figuig.

Ecrit à Paris, le 20 juillet, correspondant
au 3 Rabi II 1319.

DELCASSÉ.

ABDELKERIM BEN SLIMAN.

IV.—ANGLO-FRENCH DECLARATION RESPECTING EGYPT AND MOROCCO¹

Signed at London, April 8, 1904

(a) PUBLIC

Art. I. His Britannic Majesty's Government declare that they have no intention of altering the political status of Egypt.

The Government of the French Republic, for their part, declare that they will not obstruct the action of Great Britain in that country by asking that a limit of time be fixed for the British occupation or in any other manner

Art. II.—The Government of the French Republic declare that they have no intention of altering the political status of Morocco.

His Britannic Majesty's Government, for their part, recognize that it appertains to France, more particularly as a Power whose dominions are conterminous for a great distance with those of Morocco, to preserve order in that country, and to provide assistance for the purpose of all administrative, economic, financial, and military reforms which it may require.

¹ B. and F. State Papers, vol. xcvii, p. 39.

They declare that they will not obstruct the action taken by France for this purpose, provided that such action shall leave intact the right which Great Britain, in virtue of Treaties, Conventions, and usage, enjoys in Morocco, including the right of coasting trade between the ports of Morocco, enjoyed by British vessels since 1901.

Art. III. [French rights in Egypt to be respected.]

Art. IV.—The two Governments, being equally attached to the principle of commercial liberty both in Egypt and Morocco, declare that they will not, in those countries, countenance any inequality either in the imposition of customs duties or other taxes, or of railway transport charges.

The trade of both nations with Morocco and with Egypt shall enjoy the same treatment in transit through the French and British possessions in Africa. An Agreement between the two Governments shall settle the conditions of such transit and shall determine the points of entry.

This mutual engagement shall be binding for a period of thirty years. Unless this stipulation is expressly denounced at least one year in advance, the period shall be extended for five years at a time.

Nevertheless, the Government of the French Republic reserve to themselves in Morocco, and His Britannic Majesty's Government reserve to themselves in Egypt, the right to see that the concessions for roads, railways, ports, &c., are only granted on such conditions as will maintain intact the authority of the State over these great undertakings of public interest.

Art. V. [Officials of either country.]

Art. VI. [Free passage of Suez Canal.]

Art. VII.—In order to secure the free passage of the Straits of Gibraltar, the two Governments agree not to permit the erection of any fortifications or strategic works on that portion of the coast of Morocco comprised between, but not including, Melilla and the heights which command the right bank of the river Sebou.

This condition does not, however, apply to the places at present in the occupation of Spain on the Moorish coast of the Mediterranean.

Art. VIII.—The two Governments, inspired by their feeling of sincere friendship for Spain, take into special consideration the interests which that country derives from her geographical

position and from her territorial possessions on the Moorish coast of the Mediterranean. In regard to these interests the French Government will come to an understanding with the Spanish Government.

The agreement which may be come to on the subject between France and Spain shall be communicated to His Britannic Majesty's Government.¹

Art. IX.—The two Governments agree to afford to one another their diplomatic support, in order to obtain the execution of the clauses of the present Declaration regarding Egypt and Morocco.

In witness whereof [&c.].

Done at London, in duplicate, the 8th day of April, 1904.

(b) SECRET

SECRET ARTICLES ATTACHED TO THE PUBLIC DECLARATION OF
APRIL 8, 1904²

Art. I. In the event of either Government finding themselves constrained, by the force of circumstances, to modify the policy in respect to Egypt or Morocco, the engagements which they have undertaken towards each other by Articles IV, VI, and VII of the Declaration of to-day's date would remain intact.

Art. II. His Britannic Majesty's Government have no present intention of proposing to the Powers any changes in the system of the capitulations, or in the judicial organisation of Egypt.

In the event of their considering it desirable to introduce in Egypt reforms tending to assimilate the Egyptian legislative system to that in force in other civilised countries, the Government of the French Republic will not refuse to entertain any such proposals, on the understanding that His Britannic Majesty's Government will agree to entertain the suggestions that the Government of the French Republic may have to make to them with a view of introducing similar reforms in Morocco.

Art. III. The two Governments agree that a certain extent

¹ See Franco-Spanish Convention of October 3, 1904 (below p. 73), Art. I.

² E. D. Morel, *Morocco in Diplomacy*, p. 234. First published in *Le Temps*, Nov. 1911.

of Moorish territory adjacent to Melilla, Ceuta, and other *présides* should, whenever the Sultan ceases to exercise authority over it, come within the sphere of influence of Spain, and that the administration of the coast from Melilla as far as, but not including, the heights on the right bank of the Sebou shall be entrusted to Spain.

Nevertheless, Spain would previously have to give her formal assent to the provisions of Articles IV and VII of the Declaration of to-day's date, and undertake to carry them out.

She would also have to undertake not to alienate the whole, or a part, of the territories placed under her authority or in her sphere of influence.

Art. IV. If Spain, when invited to assent to the provisions of the preceding article, should think proper to decline, the arrangement between France and Great Britain, as embodied in the Declaration of to-day's date, would be none the less at once applicable.

Art. V. Should the consent of the other Powers to the draft Decree mentioned in Article I of the Declaration of to-day's date not be obtained, the Government of the French Republic will not oppose the repayment at par of the Guaranteed, Privileged, and Unified Debts after the 15th July, 1910.

Done at London, in duplicate, the 8th day of April, 1904.

V (a).—FRANCO-SPANISH DECLARATION CONCERNING MOROCCO¹

(Signed October 3, 1904)

Le Gouvernement de la République Française et le Gouvernement de Sa Majesté le Roi d'Espagne, s'étant mis d'accord pour fixer l'étendue des droits et la garantie des intérêts qui résultent, pour la France, de ses possessions algériennes, et, pour l'Espagne, de ses possessions sur la côte du Maroc, et le Gouvernement de S. M. le Roi d'Espagne ayant en conséquence donné son adhésion à la Déclaration Franco-Anglaise du 8 avril 1904, relative au Maroc et à l'Égypte, dont communication lui avait été faite par le Gouvernement de la République Française, déclarent qu'ils demeurent fermement attachés à l'intégrité de l'Empire Marocain sous la souveraineté du Sultan.

En foi de quoi [&c.].

¹ B. and F. State Papers, vol. xeviii, p. 703.

V (b).—CONVENTION [SECRET] BETWEEN FRANCE AND SPAIN
RESPECTING MOROCCO¹*(Signed at Paris, October 3, 1904)*

(Secret.)

Le Président de la République française et Sa Majesté le Roi d'Espagne, voulant fixer l'étendue des droits et la garantie des intérêts qui résultent, pour la France, de ses possessions algériennes, et, pour l'Espagne, de ses possessions sur la côte du Maroc, ont décidé de conclure une Convention et ont nommé, à cet effet, pour leurs Plénipotentiaires, savoir : . . .

Lesquels, après s'être communiqué leurs pleins pouvoirs, trouvés en bonne et due forme, sont convenus des articles suivants :

Art. I. L'Espagne adhère, aux termes de la présente Convention, à la déclaration franco-anglaise du 8 avril 1904, relative au Maroc et à l'Égypte.

Art. II. La Région située à l'ouest et au nord de la ligne ci-après déterminée constitue la sphère d'influence qui résulte pour l'Espagne de ses possessions sur la côte marocaine de la Méditerranée.

Dans cette zone est réservée à l'Espagne la même action qui est reconnu à la France par le deuxième paragraphe de l'article II de la déclaration du 8 avril 1904, relative au Maroc et à l'Égypte.

Toutefois, tenant compte des difficultés actuelles et de l'intérêt réciproque qu'il y a à les aplanir, l'Espagne déclare qu'elle n'exercera cette action qu'après accord avec la France pendant la première période d'application de la présente Convention, période qui ne pourra pas excéder quinze ans à partir de la signature de la Convention.

De son côté, pendant la même période, la France, désirant que les droits et les intérêts reconnus à l'Espagne par la présente Convention soient toujours respectés, fera part préalablement au Gouvernement du Roi de son action près du Sultan du Maroc en ce qui concerne la sphère d'influence espagnole.

Cette première période expirée, et tant que durera le *statu quo*, l'action de la France près du Gouvernement marocain, en

¹ B. and F. State Papers, vol. cii (1913), p. 432. This document, given also in the German *Weissbuch*, was first published in *Le Matin*, November 1911.

ce qui concerne la sphère d'influence réservée à l'Espagne, ne s'exercera qu'après accord avec le Gouvernement espagnol.

Pendant la première période, le Gouvernement de la République française fera son possible pour que, dans deux des ports à douane de la région ci-après déterminée, le délégué du représentant général des porteurs de l'emprunt marocain du 12 juillet 1904, soit de nationalité espagnole.

Partant de l'embouchure de la Moulouia dans la Mer Méditerranée, la ligne visée ci-dessus remontera le thalweg de ce fleuve . . .

Art. III. Dans le cas où l'état politique du Maroc et le Gouvernement chérifien ne pourraient plus subsister ou si, par la faiblesse de ce Gouvernement et par son impuissance persistante à assurer la sécurité et l'ordre publics, ou pour toute autre cause, à constater d'un commun accord, le maintien du *statu quo* devenait impossible, l'Espagne pourrait exercer librement son action dans la région délimitée à l'article précédent, et qui constitue dès à présent sa sphère d'influence.

Art. IV. Le Gouvernement marocain ayant, par l'article VII du traité du 26 avril 1860, concédé à l'Espagne un établissement à Santa Cruz de Mar Pequeña (Ifni), il est entendu que le territoire de cet établissement ne dépassera pas le cours de l'Oued Tazeroualt depuis sa source jusqu'à son confluent avec l'Oued Mesa, et le cours de l'Oued Mesa depuis ce confluent jusqu'à la mer, selon la carte No. 2 annexée à la présente Convention.

Art. V. Pour compléter la délimitation indiquée par l'article I de la Convention du 27 juin 1900, il est entendu que la démarcation entre les sphères d'influence française et espagnole partira . . .

Art. VI. Les articles IV et V seront applicables en même temps que l'article II de la présente Convention.

Toutefois, le Gouvernement de la République française admet que l'Espagne s'établisse à tout moment dans la partie définie par l'article IV, à la condition de s'être préalablement entendue avec le Sultan.

De même, le Gouvernement de la République française reconnaît dès maintenant au Gouvernement espagnol pleine liberté d'action sur la région comprise entre les 26° et 27° 40' de latitude nord et le méridien 11° ouest de Paris, qui sont en dehors du territoire marocain.

Art. VII. L'Espagne s'engage à n'aliéner ni à céder sous aucune forme, même à titre temporaire, tout ou partie des territoires désignés aux articles II, IV et V de la présente Convention.

Art. VIII. Si dans l'application des articles II, IV et V de la présente Convention, une action militaire s'imposait à l'une des deux parties contractantes, elle en avertirait aussitôt l'autre partie. En aucun cas il ne sera fait appel au concours d'une Puissance étrangère.

Art. IX. La ville de Tanger gardera le caractère spécial que lui donnent la présence du corps diplomatique et ses institutions municipale et sanitaire.

Art. X. Tant que durera l'état politique actuel, les entreprises de travaux publics, chemins de fer, routes, canaux partant d'un point du Maroc pour aboutir dans la région visée à l'article II et *vice versa*, seront exécutées par des sociétés que pourront constituer des Français et des Espagnols.

De même, il sera loisible aux Français et aux Espagnols au Maroc de s'associer pour l'exploitation de mines, carrières, et généralement d'entreprises d'ordre économique.

Art. XI. Les écoles et établissements espagnols actuellement existants au Maroc seront respectés. La circulation de la monnaie espagnole ne sera ni empêchée ni entravée. Les Espagnols continueront de jouir au Maroc des droits que leur assurent les traités, conventions et usages en vigueur, y compris le droit de navigation et de pêche, dans les eaux et ports marocains.

Art. XII. Les Français jouiront, dans les régions désignées aux articles II, IV et V de la présente Convention, des mêmes droits qui sont, par l'article précédent, reconnus aux Espagnols dans le reste du Maroc.

Art. XIII. Dans le cas où le Gouvernement marocain en interdirait la vente sur son territoire, les deux Puissances contractantes s'engagent à prendre, dans leurs possessions d'Afrique les mesures nécessaires pour empêcher que les armes et les munitions soient introduites en contrebande au Maroc.

Art. XIV. Il est entendu que la zone visée au paragraphe 1^{er} de l'article VII de la déclaration franco-anglaise du 8 avril 1904 relative au Maroc et à l'Égypte, commence sur la côte à 30 kilom. au sud-est de Melilla.

Art. XV. Dans le cas où la dénonciation prévue par le

paragraphe 3 de l'article IV de la déclaration franco-anglaise, relative au Maroc et à l'Égypte, aurait eu lieu, les Gouvernements français et espagnol se concerteront pour l'établissement d'un régime économique qui réponde particulièrement à leurs intérêts réciproques.

Art. XVI. La présente Convention sera publiée lorsque les deux Gouvernements jugeront, d'un commun accord, qu'elle peut l'être sans inconvénients.

En tous cas, elle pourra être publiée par l'un des deux Gouvernements à l'expiration de la première période de son application, période qui est définie au paragraphe 3 de l'article II.

En foi de quoi les Plénipotentiaires respectifs ont signé la présente Convention et l'ont revêtue de leurs cachets.

Fait, en double exemplaire, à Paris, le 3 octobre 1904.

(L.S.) DELCASSÉ.

(L.S.) F. DE LEÓN Y CASTILLO.

VI.—MOROCCAN REFUSAL OF FRENCH PROPOSALS [MAY 27, 1905]¹

M. Saint-René Taillandier, Ministre de la République française à Tanger, à M. Delcassé, Ministre des Affaires étrangères

Fez, le 27 mai 1905.

J'ai reçu de Ben Sliman, à une heure avancée de la soirée, une lettre dont voici la traduction :

‘ Nous avons fait connaître à Sa Majesté Chérifienne la réponse du Gouvernement français à celle que nous vous fîmes précédemment et qui portait que le peuple avait décidé d'attendre, pour ratifier la réforme militaire, que les Puissances signataires de la Convention de Madrid aient été associées à la discussion de ce projet. Vous nous avez dit que votre Gouvernement en a déduit que le Makhzen veut méconnaître les droits du voisinage, quoiqu'il ne puisse pas plus y avoir de puissance intermédiaire entre la France et le Maroc qu'il n'y a de territoire intermédiaire entre ces deux pays. Nous avons également fait connaître à Sa Majesté ce que vous nous aviez

¹ *Documents Diplomatiques, Affaires du Maroc, 1901-5, p. 223; Weissbuch, 158, p. 14.*

dit précédemment, savoir que la réponse du Makhzen dénotait un manque de confiance à l'égard de la France. — Le Sultan a pris connaissance de tout cela et m'a chargé de vous répondre :

1° Qu'il n'ignore pas le voisinage de l'Algérie et qu'il n'a cessé d'entretenir de bons rapports avec le Gouvernement français, d'avoir confiance en lui et de respecter les droits de voisinage. — Seulement lorsqu'il a soumis aux notables de ce pays ce qui a eu lieu avec vous, ils m'ont demandé de ne consentir à aucune réforme militaire ou autre dans ce pays, par une seule d'entre les Puissances étrangères, si ce n'est après la réunion d'une conférence internationale à Tanger à laquelle prendraient part les Ministres des Puissances signataires de la Convention de Madrid et les délégués du Makhzen, qui seraient chargés de négocier la façon dont auraient lieu les réformes nécessitées par la situation et de donner à cet effet leurs avis de manière à satisfaire à l'opinion publique.

'Le Sultan ne peut être en opposition avec le peuple, car celui-ci a le droit de ne pas se désintéresser d'une question de la plus haute importance. Nulle Puissance ne saurait négliger cette question ; d'autant plus que vous nous avez déclaré, à plusieurs reprises, que les Puissances attachent un grand prix à l'exécution de ces réformes, qui touchent leurs droits. Toutefois, une pareille demande n'a rien qui modifie la sincérité de l'amitié entre les deux Gouvernements amis, dans le chemin de la justice.—En conséquence, un ordre chérifien a prescrit au représentant du Sultan à Tanger de demander aux Puissances, par l'intermédiaire de leurs Ministres, la réunion d'une conférence à Tanger entre ces Ministres et les délégués du Makhzen, afin de traiter sur les propositions faites par le Makhzen en ce qui concerne les réformes appropriées à la situation présente de l'Empire.'

23 rebi el auwal 1323.

(Signé) ABDELKERIM BEN SLIMAN.

J'ai à peine besoin de faire remarquer que cette lettre fausse complètement sur plusieurs points le langage que j'ai tenu et celui qui m'a été tenu.

SAINT-RENÉ TAILLANDIER.

VII.—FRANCO-GERMAN AGREEMENT AS TO CONFERENCE
JULY 8, 1905¹

*M. Rouvier, président du Conseil, ministre des Affaires étrangères,
au prince de Radolin, ambassadeur d'Allemagne à Paris*

Paris, le 8 juillet 1905.

Le gouvernement de la République s'est convaincu, par les conversations qui ont eu lieu, entre les représentants des deux gouvernements, tant à Paris qu'à Berlin, que le gouvernement impérial ne poursuivait, à la conférence proposée par le Sultan du Maroc, aucun but qui compromît les légitimes intérêts de la France dans ce pays, ou qui fût contraire aux droits de la France résultant de ses traités ou arrangements et en harmonie avec les principes suivants :

Souveraineté et indépendance du Sultan ;

Intégrité de son empire ;

Liberté économique sans aucune inégalité ;

Utilité de réformes de police et de réformes financières dont l'introduction serait réglée pour une courte durée par voie d'accord international ;

Reconnaissance de la situation faite à la France au Maroc, par la contiguïté, sur une vaste étendue, de l'Algérie et de l'empire chérifien, et par les relations particulières qui en résultent entre les deux pays limitrophes ainsi que par l'intérêt spécial qui s'ensuit pour la France à ce que l'ordre règne dans l'empire chérifien.

En conséquence, le gouvernement de la République laisse tomber ses objections premières contre la conférence et accepte de s'y rendre.

*Le prince de Radolin, ambassadeur d'Allemagne à Paris, à
M. Rouvier, président du Conseil, ministre des Affaires étrangères*

Paris, le 8 juillet 1905.

Le gouvernement de la République acceptant de se rendre à la conférence proposée par le Sultan du Maroc, le gouvernement Impérial m'a chargé de vous confirmer ses déclarations verbales aux termes desquelles il ne poursuivra aucun but qui

¹ *Documents Diplomatiques, Affaires du Maroc, 1901-5, p. 251 ; Weissbuch, 158, p. 32.*

compromette les légitimes intérêts de la France au Maroc, ou qui soit contraire aux droits de la France résultant de ses traités ou arrangements et en harmonie avec les principes suivants :

Souveraineté et indépendance du Sultan ;

Intégrité de son empire ;

Liberté économique, sans aucune inégalité ;

Utilité de réformes de police et de réformes financières dont l'introduction serait réglée, pour une courte durée, par voie d'accord international ;

Reconnaissance de la situation faite à la France au Maroc par la contiguïté, sur une vaste étendue, de l'Algérie et de l'empire chérifien, et par les relations particulières qui en résultent entre les deux pays limitrophes ainsi que par l'intérêt spécial qui s'ensuit pour la France à ce que l'ordre règne dans l'empire chérifien.

Cet échange de lettres a été suivi de la déclaration suivante :

Le gouvernement de la République et le gouvernement allemand conviennent :

1° De rappeler à Tanger simultanément leurs missions actuellement à Fez aussitôt que la conférence se sera réunie ;

2° De faire donner au Sultan du Maroc des conseils par leurs représentants, d'un commun accord, en vue de la fixation du programme qu'il proposera à la conférence sur les bases indiquées dans les lettres échangées sous la date du 8 juillet 1905 entre le président du Conseil, ministre des Affaires étrangères, et l'ambassadeur d'Allemagne à Paris.

VIII.—FRANCO-SPANISH (SECRET) TREATY OF SEPTEMBER 1, 1905¹

Art. I. The military police bodies, which shall be organised as soon as possible in the ports of the Shereefian Empire, must be composed of native troops. France, in accord with Spain, admits that all the chiefs, officers and non-commissioned officers who will be invested with the instruction and command of the said troops in the ports of Tetuan and Larash must

¹ E. D. Morel, *Morocco in Diplomacy*, p. 248 et seq. An abstract is given in *Correspondence*, 8738, p. 27.

belong to the Spanish nation ; on its side Spain, in accord with France, admits that all the chiefs, officers and non-commissioned officers who will be invested with the instruction and the command of the police bodies in the ports of Rabat and Casablanca must be of French nationality. As regards the port of Tangier, in virtue of the stipulations of Article IX of the Treaty of 3rd October, 1904, it is understood that the police of this town will be confided to a Franco-Spanish corps commanded by a Frenchman. This *régime* will be subject to revision upon the expiry of a period of fifteen years foreseen in the Convention of 3rd October, 1904.

Art. II. Conformably with the spirit of Article XVIII of the said Treaty, and in order to insure its execution, it is understood that on land the supervision and the repression of the smuggling of arms will remain under the charge of France in the sphere of her Algerian frontier, and under the charge of Spain in the sphere of all her African places and possessions. The supervision and repression of smuggling by sea will be confided to a naval division of the two Powers who will agree upon the units. This division will be alternately commanded for a year by a naval officer of one of the two Powers and following year by a naval officer of the other Power. The command will be exercised during the first year by a French naval officer. The two Governments will establish by common accord the rules to be observed for the repression of this smuggling trade when the right of visitation is exercised, in the event of the exercise of this right becoming indispensable to insure the efficacy of repression.

Art. III. In order to insure on both sides in the most friendly sense the exact interpretations of Articles X, XI and XII of the Convention of 3rd October, 1904, it remains understood :

(a) That all enterprises in connection with public works, railways, roads and canals, the exploitation of mines and quarries and all other enterprises of a commercial or industrial character on the territory of Morocco may be carried out by groups composed of Spaniards and Frenchmen. The two Governments mutually undertake to favour by the means of which they dispose the founding of these mixed enterprises on a basis of equality of rights of the participants in the proportion of the capital employed. Upon the expiry of the delay of fifteen years, foreseen by the Convention of 3rd October, 1904,

the two high contracting parties will be able to carry out the public works referred to in the preceding paragraph in conformity with the rules indicated therein in their respective zones of influence.

(b) Spaniards and Frenchmen, together with their establishments and schools already existing in the Empire of Morocco, will be respected ; in any case they will enjoy for ever in Morocco in the exercise of their provisions and the execution of their commercial and industrial operations, existing or projected, the same rights and privileges in such a way that the juridical position of the subjects and participants of each nation will be constantly the same. The merchandise of the two countries will enjoy an identical treatment with regard to their import, circulation and sale in the Empire. The two high contracting parties will employ every pacific means in their power and will lend themselves mutual assistance with the Sultan and the Moorish Government, in order to prevent that now or in the future this clause should be modified by the Moroccan authorities through the establishment of different rules as regards the juridical condition of the persons and the conditions to which the merchandise of the two nations will be subject.

Art. IV. The two Powers undertake to observe this accord even in a case where the stipulations of Article XVII of the Madrid Convention of 1880 might be extended to all economic and financial questions. They will attempt by their constant pacific action with the Sultan of Morocco and the Moorish Government to insure the loyal accomplishment of all that is stipulated in the present accord. Moreover, Spain has formally decided to endorse wholly French action in the course of the deliberations of the projected Conference, and France agreeing to act in the same manner towards Spain, it is understood between the two Governments that they will mutually assist each other and will proceed in accord in the said deliberations as regards the different objects of the present accord. Finally, they undertake to assist one another in the most pacific manner on all general questions concerning Morocco as the cordial and friendly understanding which exists between them in regard to the affairs of the Shereefian Empire implies.

IX.—FRANCO-GERMAN AGREEMENT AS TO PROGRAMME AT
CONFERENCE, SEPTEMBER 28, 1905¹

(*Accord signé le 28 septembre 1905*)

Les deux gouvernements se sont mis d'accord pour proposer au Sultan le projet de programme suivant élaboré en conformité des principes adoptés dans l'échange de lettres du 8 juillet :

I. 1° Organisation, par voie d'accord international, de la police hors de la région frontière;

2° Règlement organisant la surveillance et la répression de la contrebande des armes. — Dans la région frontière, l'application de ce règlement restera l'affaire exclusive de la France et du Maroc.

II. Réforme financière.

Concours financier donné au maghzen par la création d'une Banque d'Etat avec privilège d'émission, se chargeant des opérations de trésorerie et s'entremettant pour la frappe de la monnaie dont les bénéfices appartiendraient au maghzen.

La Banque d'Etat procéderait à l'assainissement de la situation monétaire.

Les crédits ouverts au maghzen seraient employés à l'équipement et à la solde des troupes de police et à certain travaux publics urgents, notamment à l'amélioration des ports et de leur outillage.

III. Étude d'un meilleur rendement des impôts et de la création de nouveaux revenus.

IV. Engagement par le maghzen de n'aliéner aucun des services publics au profit d'intérêts particuliers.

Principe de l'adjudication, sans acception de nationalité, pour les travaux publics.

Fait à Paris, le 28 septembre 1905.

(Signé) ROUVIER.

RADOLIN.

¹ Tardieu, *op. cit.*, pp. 484, 485. An abstract is given in *Correspondence*, 8738, p. 96.

*Note concertée entre les Commissaires des Gouvernements
français et allemand*

Paris, le 28 septembre 1905.

Les négociations entre la France et l'Allemagne concernant le projet de programme de la conférence sur les affaires marocaines viennent d'aboutir.

L'accord s'est fait sur un programme qui comprend : organisation de la police ; règlement concernant la surveillance et la répression de la contrebande des armes ; réforme financière consistant principalement dans l'institution d'une Banque d'État, étude d'un meilleur rendement des impôts et de la création de nouveaux revenus ; enfin fixation de certains principes destinés à sauvegarder la liberté économique.

Quant à la région frontière, par une réserve spéciale insérée au projet de programme, il est entendu que les questions de police continuent à y être réglées directement et exclusivement entre la France et le Sultan et restent en dehors du programme de la conférence. Dans la même région, l'application du règlement sur la contrebande des armes restera l'affaire exclusive de la France et du Maroc...

En ce qui concerne les questions de l'emprunt et du port, elles ont été réglées de la manière suivante : ...

**X.—ACTE GÉNÉRAL DE LA CONFÉRENCE INTERNATIONALE
D'ALGÉSIRAS, 7 AVRIL 1906¹**

[Enumeration of the Powers represented, viz. Great Britain, Germany, Austria-Hungary, Belgium, Spain, United States, France, Italy, Morocco, Netherlands, Portugal, Russia, Sweden,]

S'inspirant de l'intérêt qui s'attache à ce que l'ordre, la paix et la prospérité règnent au Maroc, et ayant reconnu que ce but précieux ne saurait être atteint que moyennant l'introduction de réformes basées sur le triple principe de la souveraineté et de l'indépendance de Sa Majesté le Sultan, de l'intégrité de ses États et de la liberté économique sans aucune inégalité, ont résolu, sur l'invitation qui leur a été adressée par Sa Majesté Chérifienne, de réunir une Conférence à Algésiras pour arriver à une entente sur les dites réformes, ainsi que pour

¹ B. and F. State Papers, vol. xcix, pp. 141-171.

examiner les moyens de se procurer les ressources nécessaires à leur application, et ont nommé pour Leurs Délégués Plénipotentiaires, savoir . . .

Lesquels . . . ont, conformément au programme sur lequel Sa Majesté Chérifienne et les Puissances sont tombées d'accord, successivement discuté et adopté :

I. Une Déclaration relative à l'organisation de la police ;

II. Un Règlement concernant la surveillance et la répression de la contrebande des armes ;

III. Un Acte de concession d'une Banque d'État marocaine ;

IV. Une Déclaration concernant un meilleur rendement des impôts et la création de nouveaux revenus ;

V. Un Règlement sur les Douanes de l'Empire et la répression de la fraude et de la contrebande ;

VI. Une Déclaration relative aux Services Publics et aux Travaux Publics ;

Et ayant jugés que ces différents documents pourraient être utilement coordonnés en un seul instrument, les ont réunis en un Acte Général composé des Articles suivants :

[Chapters I-VI (as above) follow.¹]

Cap. VII. Dispositions Générales.

... Tous les traités, conventions et arrangements des Puissances signataires avec le Maroc restent en vigueur. Toutefois, il est entendu qu'en cas de conflit entre leurs dispositions et celle du présent Acte Général, les stipulations de ce dernier prévaudront.

En foi de quoi [&c.].²

XI.—FRANCO-SPANISH NOTE ON RECOGNITION OF MULAI HAFID, SEPTEMBER 11, 1908³

La résolution que le Sultan Abd el Aziz vient de prendre, on renonçant à la lutte contre Moulay Hafid, place les puissances

¹ The Act itself is too lengthy to be printed here.

² An exchange of notes between France and Germany, touching a loan to Morocco, took place on September 5-12, 1906 (see *Documents Diplomatiques, Affaires du Maroc*, 1906-7, p. 47).

³ *Documents Diplomatiques, Affaires du Maroc*, 1908, pp. 377, 378. The note was accepted by Mulai Hafid in the following November (Tardieu, *La Conférence d'Algésiras*, p. 566).

en présence d'une situation qui s'impose à leur examen. L'attitude même qu'elles ont gardée au cours de ce conflit, leur entente sur leurs intérêts communs au Maroc et les principes dont elles sont déjà convenues lorsqu'elles ont eu à examiner la question marocaine à Algésiras, rendent d'ailleurs très aisée la conformité des vues sur cette situation.

La France et l'Espagne, chargées d'assurer l'exécution des mesures les plus importantes prises par la Conférence d'Algésiras pour la sauvegarde des colonies étrangères dans l'empire chérifien, et spécialement intéressées dans les affaires marocaines par leur qualité de puissances limitrophes, croient devoir soumettre aux Cabinets les observations que leur suggère la substitution d'un nouveau Gouvernement de fait au Makhzen d'Abd el Aziz.

Il apparaît tout d'abord et ce sera sans doute le sentiment unanime des puissances, qu'il est désirable d'affirmer dans cette occasion, au regard du Maroc, leur solidarité et leur complet accord, et il semble que le meilleur moyen d'établir l'entente nécessaire soit d'admettre la règle que les divers Gouvernements ne subordonneront la reconnaissance officielle du nouveau makhzen qu'à l'obtention de garanties et de satisfactions communes à tous les intérêts étrangers.

Les Gouvernements français et espagnol estiment que les garanties à obtenir du nouveau Makhzen devraient porter sur les points suivants :

Le nouveau Sultan déclarerait adhérer d'une façon générale à toutes les dispositions de l'Acte d'Algésiras ainsi qu'à tous les règlements d'application, prévus par cet acte, qui ont été déjà établis et approuvés par le Corps diplomatique à Tanger, aux commissions instituées en vertu de ces règlements, aux décisions chérifiennes et mesures quelconques prises à ce sujet.

On ne saurait oublier, en effet, que si cet acte constitue la consécration internationale de l'indépendance de l'Empire chérifien, il assure en même temps la sauvegarde des intérêts étrangers au Maroc.

Devraient être confirmés également les droits conférés à la France et à l'Espagne, avec l'agrément des puissances, pour la surveillance sur mer de la contrebande des armes.

Le nouveau Gouvernement devrait accepter l'ensemble des autres traités et engagements conclus par les précédents souverains du Maroc avec les puissances, les arrangements passés

avec le Corps diplomatique et les contrats avec les particuliers ; il assumerait aussi la responsabilité des dettes contractées par Abd el Aziz. Les dettes souscrites au bénéfice de particuliers seraient soumises à une vérification dont les conditions seront ultérieurement déterminées.

Le règlement des dommages causés par les troubles de Casablanca se poursuivra devant la Commission internationale actuellement en fonctions. Le Sultan assumera la responsabilité effective et pécuniaire des décisions de cette Commission dont il confirmera les attributions.

Les événements montrent la nécessité absolue que le nouveau Sultan manifeste publiquement et officiellement, au regard de son peuple, sa ferme intention d'entretenir avec les Gouvernements étrangers et leurs nationaux des relations conformes au droit des gens.

Il devrait donc désavouer et arrêter les appels à la guerre sainte ; il adresserait dans ce but aux gouverneurs des tribus et des villes des lettres chérifiennes qui seraient destinées à prévenir ou calmer toute agitation et tout acte offensif, tant à l'intérieur que sur les frontières du Maroc. Le Sultan doit s'engager à adopter immédiatement toutes les mesures nécessaires pour assurer la sécurité et la liberté des communications autour des ports et sur les principales routes de l'intérieur.

Ces garanties étant obtenues, rien ne s'opposerait plus à ce qu'une demande officielle de reconnaissance faite par Moulay Hafid fût accueillie par les Puissances. Le Sultan déclarera que cela n'implique pour les Gouvernements étrangers aucune renonciation à poursuivre le règlement des questions qui touchent exclusivement à leur intérêts respectifs, ni aucun préjudice à leur droit de poursuivre ce règlement. C'est ainsi que la France et l'Espagne se réservent de se faire rembourser leurs frais d'opérations militaires et de réclamer directement le paiement d'indemnités pour le meurtre de leurs nationaux.

D'autre part, il conviendrait que le nouveau Sultan se prêtât à un règlement honorable de la situation personnelle d'Abd el Aziz et les Puissances lui recommanderont pour un traitement équitable les fonctionnaires de son prédécesseur.

XII.—FRANCO-GERMAN DECLARATION RESPECTING THE INTEGRITY OF MOROCCO, AND THE POSITION OF FRANCE THEREIN. SIGNED FEBRUARY 9, 1909¹

Le Gouvernement de la République française et le Gouvernement Impérial allemand, animés d'un égal désir de faciliter l'exécution de l'Acte d'Algésiras, sont convenus de préciser la portée qu'ils attachent à ses clauses en vue d'éviter toute cause de malentendus entre eux dans l'avenir.

En conséquence,

Le Gouvernement de la République française, entièrement attaché au maintien de l'intégrité et de l'indépendance de l'Empire chérifien, résolu à y sauvegarder l'égalité économique et, par suite, à ne pas y entraver les intérêts commerciaux et industriels allemands ;

Et le Gouvernement Impérial allemand, ne poursuivant que des intérêts économiques au Maroc, reconnaissant, d'autre part, que les intérêts politiques particuliers de la France y sont étroitement liés à la consolidation de l'ordre et de la paix intérieure et décidé à ne pas entraver ces intérêts ;

Déclarent qu'ils ne poursuivent et n'encouragent aucune mesure de nature à créer en leur faveur ou en faveur d'une Puissance quelconque un privilège économique, et qu'il chercheront à associer leurs nationaux dans les affaires dont ceux-ci pourront obtenir l'entreprise.

JULES CAMBON.

KIDERLEN-WAECHTER.

XIII.—CONVENTION BETWEEN FRANCE AND GERMANY RESPECTING MOROCCO.—SIGNED AT BERLIN, NOVEMBER 4, 1911²

(Ratifications exchanged at Paris, March 12, 1912)

A la suite des troubles qui se sont produits au Maroc et qui ont démontré la nécessité d'y poursuivre, dans l'intérêt général, l'œuvre de pacification et de progrès prévue par l'Acte

¹ B. and F. State Papers, vol. cii, p. 435. In the interval between this agreement and the next, a Franco-Moroccan Agreement for a loan was signed on March 21, 1910 (*Correspondence*, 9793, p. 106); and an Hispano-Moroccan Agreement, on the administration of the occupied portion of the Rif, Ceuta frontier arrangements, and the Melilla War Indemnity, was reached on November 16, 1910 (B. and F. State Papers, vol. ciii, p. 593).

² B. and F. State Papers, vol. civ, p. 948.

d'Algésiras, le Gouvernement de la République française et le Gouvernement Impérial allemand ont jugé nécessaire de préciser et de compléter l'accord franco-allemand du 9 février 1909.

Art. I. Le Gouvernement Impérial allemand déclare que, ne poursuivant au Maroc que des intérêts économiques, il n'entravera pas l'action de la France en vue de prêter son assistance au Gouvernement marocain pour l'introduction de toutes les réformes administratives, judiciaires, économiques, financières et militaires dont il a besoin pour le bon gouvernement de l'Empire, comme aussi pour tous les règlements nouveaux et les modifications aux règlements existants que ces réformes comportent. En conséquence, il donne son adhésion aux mesures de réorganisation, de contrôle et de garantie financière que, après accord avec le Gouvernement marocain, le Gouvernement français croira devoir prendre à cet effet sous la réserve que l'action de la France sauvegardera au Maroc l'égalité économique entre les nations.

Au cas où la France serait amenée à préciser et à étendre son contrôle et sa protection, le Gouvernement Impérial allemand, reconnaissant pleine liberté d'action à la France, et sous la réserve que la liberté commerciale prévue par les traités antérieurs sera maintenue, n'y apportera aucun obstacle.

Il est entendu qu'il ne sera porté aucune entrave aux droits et actions de la Banque d'État du Maroc tels qu'ils ont été définis par l'Acte d'Algésiras.

Art. II. Dans cet ordre d'idées, il est entendu que le Gouvernement Impérial ne fera pas obstacle à ce que la France, après accord avec le Gouvernement marocain, procède aux occupations militaires du territoire marocain qu'elle jugera nécessaires au maintien de l'ordre et de la sécurité des transactions commerciales, et à ce qu'elle exerce toute action de police sur terre et dans les eaux marocaines.

Art. III. Dès à présent, si Sa Majesté le Sultan du Maroc venait à confier aux agents diplomatiques et consulaires de la France la représentation et la protection des sujets et des intérêts marocains à l'étranger, le Gouvernement Impérial déclare qu'il n'y fera pas d'objection.

Si, d'autre part, Sa Majesté le Sultan du Maroc confiait au représentant de la France près du Gouvernement marocain le soin d'être son intermédiaire auprès des représentants étrangers, le Gouvernement allemand n'y ferait pas d'objection.

Art. IV. Le Gouvernement français déclare que, fermement attaché au principe de la liberté commerciale au Maroc, il ne se prêtera à aucune inégalité pas plus dans l'établissement des droits de douane, impôts et autres taxes, que dans l'établissement des tarifs de transport par voie ferrée, voie de navigation fluviale ou toute autre voie, et notamment dans toutes les questions de transit.

Le Gouvernement français s'emploiera également auprès du Gouvernement marocain afin d'empêcher tout traitement différentiel entre les ressortissants des différentes Puissances ;...

Art. V. [Exportation of minerals to be free.]

Art. VI. [Concessions for railways, &c.]

Art. VII. [No discrimination in regard to above.]

Art. VIII. [Annual report on such undertakings.]

Art. IX. Pour éviter, autant que possible, les réclamations diplomatiques, le Gouvernement français s'emploiera auprès du Gouvernement marocain afin que celui-ci défère à un arbitre désigné *ad hoc* pour chaque affaire, d'un commun accord, par le consul de France et par celui de la Puissance intéressée, ou, à leur défaut, par les deux Gouvernements, les plaintes portées par des ressortissants étrangers contre les autorités marocaines ou les agents agissant en tant qu'autorités marocaines, et qui n'auraient pu être réglées par l'intermédiaire du consul français et du consul du Gouvernement intéressé.

Cette procédure restera en vigueur jusqu'au jour où aura été institué un régime judiciaire inspiré des règles générales de législation des Puissances intéressées et destiné à remplacer, après entente avec elles, les tribunaux consulaires.

Art. X. [Rights of fishing.]

Art. XI. [New ports to be opened as required.]

Art. XII. [Lists of protected persons to be made.]

Art. XIII. Toutes clauses d'accord, convention, traité ou règlement qui seraient contraires aux précédentes stipulations sont et demeurent abrogées.

Art. XIV. Le présent accord sera communiqué aux autres Puissances signataires de l'Acte d'Algésiras, près desquelles les deux Gouvernements s'engagent à se prêter mutuellement appui pour obtenir leur adhésion.

Art. XV. [Ratifications.]

Fait à Berlin, le 4 novembre 1911, en double exemplaire.

JULES CAMBON.

KIDERLEN.

XIV.—CONVENTION BETWEEN FRANCE AND GERMANY RELATING TO THEIR POSSESSIONS IN EQUATORIAL AFRICA.—
SIGNED AT BERLIN, NOVEMBER 4, 1911¹

(Ratifications exchanged at Paris, March 12, 1912)

Le Gouvernement de Sa Majesté l'Empereur d'Allemagne et le Gouvernement de la République française, comme suite et complément de la Convention du 4 novembre 1911, relative au Maroc, et en raison des droits de protection reconnus à la France sur l'Empire chérifien, sont convenus de procéder à des échanges territoriaux dans leurs possessions de l'Afrique équatoriale et ont résolu de conclure une Convention à cet effet.

Art. I. La France cède à l'Allemagne les territoires dont la limite est fixée comme il suit :

Art. II. L'Allemagne cède à la France les territoires situés au nord de la limite actuelle des possessions françaises dans les territoires du Tchad et compris entre le Chari à l'est et le Logone à l'ouest

XV.—TRAITÉ ENTRE LA FRANCE ET LE MAROC POUR L'ÉTABLISSEMENT D'UN RÉGIME RÉGULIER ET L'INTRODUCTION DES RÉFORMES NÉCESSAIRES. SIGNÉ À FEZ, LE 30 MARS 1912²

Le Gouvernement de la République française et le Gouvernement de Sa Majesté chérifienne, soucieux d'établir au Maroc un régime régulier, fondé sur l'ordre intérieur et la sécurité générale, qui permette l'introduction des réformes et assure le développement du pays, sont convenus des dispositions suivantes :

Art. I. Le Gouvernement de la République française et Sa Majesté le Sultan sont d'accord pour instituer au Maroc un nouveau régime comportant les réformes administratives, judiciaires, scolaires, économiques, financières et militaires que le Gouvernement français jugera utile d'introduire sur le territoire marocain.

¹ B. and F. State Papers, vol. civ, p. 956. Given here because of its intimate connexion with the preceding, as shown in the preamble. The recovery by France of the ceded districts appears to release Germany from the compensatory recognition involved.

² B. and F. State Papers, vol. civ, p. 1023.

Ce régime sauvegardera la situation religieuse, le respect et le prestige traditionnel du Sultan, l'exercice de la religion musulmane et des institutions religieuses, notamment de celles des Habous. Il comportera l'organisation d'un Makhzen chérifien réformé.

Le Gouvernement de la République se concertera avec le Gouvernement espagnol au sujet des intérêts que ce Gouvernement tient de sa position géographique et de ses possessions territoriales sur la côte marocaine.

De même, la ville de Tanger gardera le caractère spécial qui lui a été reconnu et qui déterminera son organisation municipale.

Art. II. Sa Majesté le Sultan admet dès maintenant que le Gouvernement français procède, après avoir prévenue le Makhzen, aux occupations militaires du territoire marocain qu'il jugerait nécessaires au maintien de l'ordre et de la sécurité des transactions commerciales et à ce qu'il exerce tout action de police sur terre et dans les eaux marocaines.

Art. III. Le Gouvernement de la République prend l'engagement de prêter un constant appui à Sa Majesté chérifienne contre tout danger qui menacerait sa personne ou son trône ou qui compromettrait la tranquillité de ses États. Le même appui sera prêté à l'héritier du trône et à ses successeurs.

Art. IV. Les mesures que nécessitera le nouveau régime de protectorat seront édictées, sur la proposition du Gouvernement français, par Sa Majesté chérifienne ou par les autorités auxquelles elle en aura délégué le pouvoir. Il en sera de même des règlements nouveaux et des modifications aux règlements existants.

Art. V. Le Gouvernement français sera représenté auprès de Sa Majesté chérifienne par un Commissaire Résident général, dépositaire de tous les pouvoirs de la République au Maroc, qui veillera à l'exécution du présent accord.

Le Commissaire Résident général sera le seul intermédiaire du Sultan auprès des représentants étrangers et dans les rapports que ces représentants entretiennent avec le Gouvernement marocain. Il sera, notamment, chargé de toutes les questions intéressant les étrangers dans l'Empire chérifien.

Il aura le pouvoir d'approuver et de promulguer, au nom du Gouvernement français, tous les décrets rendus par Sa Majesté chérifienne.

Art. VI. Les agents diplomatiques et consulaires de la France seront chargés de la représentation et de la protection des sujets et des intérêts marocains à l'étranger.

Sa Majesté le Sultan s'engage à ne conclure aucun acte ayant une caractère international sans l'assentiment préalable du Gouvernement de la République française.

Art. VII. Le Gouvernement de la République française et le Gouvernement de Sa Majesté chérifienne se réservent de fixer d'un commun accord les bases d'une réorganisation financière qui, en respectant les droits conférés aux porteurs des titres des emprunts publics marocains, permette de garantir les engagements du Trésor chérifien et de percevoir régulièrement les revenus de l'Empire.

Art. VIII. Sa Majesté chérifienne s'interdit de contracter à l'avenir, directement ou indirectement, aucun emprunt public ou privé et d'accorder, sous une forme quelconque, aucune concession sans l'autorisation du Gouvernement français.

Art. IX. La présente Convention sera soumise à la ratification du Gouvernement de la République française et l'instrument de ladite ratification sera remis à Sa Majesté le Sultan dans le plus bref délai possible.

En foi de quoi les soussignés ont dressé le présent acte et l'ont revêtu de leurs cachets.

Fait à Fez, le 30 mars 1912.

(L.S.) REGNAULT.

(L.S.) MOULAY ABD-EL-HAFID.

XVI.—CONVENTION ENTRE L'ESPAGNE ET LA FRANCE EN VUE DE PRÉCISER LA SITUATION RESPECTIVE DES DEUX PAYS À L'ÉGARD DE L'EMPIRE CHÉRIFIEN, ET PROTOCOLE CONCERNANT LE CHEMIN DE FER TANGER-FEZ. SIGNÉE À MADRID, LE 27 NOVEMBRE 1912.¹

(Ratifications exchanged at Madrid, April 2, 1913)

Le Président de la République française et Sa Majesté le Roi d'Espagne, désireux de préciser la situation respective de la France et de l'Espagne à l'égard de l'Empire chérifien ; considérant, d'autre part, que la présente Convention leur

¹ B. and F. State Papers, vol. cvi, p. 1025.

offre une occasion propice d'affirmer leurs sentiments d'amitié réciproque et leur volonté de mettre en harmonie leurs intérêts au Maroc, ont nommé, à cet effet pour leurs Plénipotentiaires, savoir :

Lesquels, . . . , ont arrêté et signé les articles suivants :

Art. I. Le Gouvernement de la République française reconnaît que, dans la zone d'influence espagnole, il appartient à l'Espagne de veiller à la tranquillité de ladite zone et de prêter son assistance au Gouvernement marocain pour l'introduction de toutes les réformes administratives, économiques, financières, judiciaires, et militaires dont il a besoin, comme aussi pour tous les règlements nouveaux et les modifications aux règlements existants que ces réformes comportent, conformément à la déclaration franco-anglaise du 8 avril 1904, et à l'accord franco-allemand du 4 novembre 1911.

Les régions comprises dans la zone d'influence déterminée à l'article II resteront placées sous l'autorité civile et religieuse du Sultan, suivant les conditions du présent accord.

Ces régions seront administrées, sous le contrôle d'un haut commissaire espagnol, par un khalifa choisi par le Sultan sur une liste de deux candidats présentés par le Gouvernement espagnol. Les fonctions du khalifa ne seront maintenues ou retirées au titulaire qu'avec le consentement du Gouvernement espagnol.

Le khalifa résidera dans la zone d'influence espagnole et habituellement à Tétouan ; il sera pourvu d'une délégation générale du Sultan, en vertu de laquelle il exercera les droits appartenant à celui-ci.

Cette délégation aura un caractère permanent. En cas de vacance, les fonctions de khalifa seront, provisoirement, et d'office, remplis par le pacha de Tétouan.

Les actes de l'autorité marocaine dans la zone d'influence espagnole seront contrôlés par le Haut Commissaire espagnol et ses agents. Le haut commissaire sera le seul intermédiaire dans les rapports que le khalifa, en qualité de délégué de l'autorité impériale dans la zone espagnole, aura à entretenir avec les agents officiels étrangers, étant donné d'ailleurs qu'il ne sera pas dérogé à l'article V du traité franco-chérifien du 30 mars 1912.

Le Gouvernement de Sa Majesté le Roi d'Espagne veillera à l'observation des traités, spécialement des clauses économiques

et commerciales insérées dans l'Accord franco-allemand du 4 novembre 1911.

Aucune responsabilité ne pourra être imputée au Gouvernement chérifien du chef de réclamations motivées par des faits qui se seraient produits sous l'administration du khalifa dans la zone d'influence espagnole.

Art. II.¹ [Precise delimitation of the Spanish zone.]

Art. III. Le Gouvernement marocain ayant, par l'article VIII du traité du 26 avril 1860, concédé à l'Espagne un établissement à Santa Cruz de Mar Pequeña (Ifni), il est entendu que le territoire de cet établissement aura les limites suivantes : au nord, l'oued Bou Sedra, depuis son embouchure ; au sud, l'oued Noun, depuis son embouchure ; à l'est, une ligne distante approximativement de 25 kilom. de la côte.

Art. IV. [Method of delimitation.]

Art. V. L'Espagne s'engage à n'aliéner ni céder sous aucune forme, même à titre temporaire, ses droits dans tout ou partie du territoire composant sa zone d'influence.

Art. VI. Afin d'assurer le libre passage du détroit de Gibraltar, les deux Gouvernements conviennent de ne pas laisser élever de fortifications ou d'ouvrages stratégiques quelconques sur la partie de la côte marocaine visée par l'article VII de la déclaration franco-anglaise du 8 avril 1904, et par l'article XIV de la convention franco-espagnole du 3 octobre de la même année, et comprise dans les sphères d'influence respectives.

Art. VII. La ville de Tanger et sa banlieue seront dotées d'un régime spécial qui sera déterminé ultérieurement ; elles formeront une zone comprise dans les limites décrites ci-après :

Art. VIII. Les consulats, les écoles et tous les établissements français et espagnols actuellement existants au Maroc seront maintenus.

Les deux Gouvernements s'engagent à faire respecter la liberté et la pratique extérieure de tout culte existant au Maroc.

Le Gouvernement de Sa Majesté le Roi d'Espagne, en ce qui le concerne, fera en sorte que les privilèges religieux exercés actuellement par le clergé régulier et séculier espagnol ne subsistent dans la zone française. Toutefois, dans cette zone, les missions espagnoles conserveront leurs établissements et propriétés actuels, mais le Gouvernement de Sa Majesté le Roi

¹ See *Spanish Morocco*, No. 122 of this series.

d'Espagne ne s'opposera pas à ce que des religieux de nationalité française y soient affectés. Les nouveaux établissements que ces missions fonderaient seront confiés à des religieux français.

Art. IX. Aussi longtemps que le Chemin de Fer Tanger-Fez ne sera pas construit, il ne sera apporté aucune entrave au passage des convois de ravitaillement destinés au Maghzen, ni aux voyages des fonctionnaires chérifiens ou étrangers entre Fez et Tanger et inversement, non plus qu'au passage de leur escorte, de leurs armes et bagages, étant entendu que les autorités de la zone traversée auront été préalablement avisées. Aucune taxe ou aucun droit spécial de transit ne pourra être perçu pour ce passage.

Après la construction du chemin de fer Tanger-Fez, celui-ci pourra être utilisé pour ces transports.

Art. X. Les impôts et ressources de toutes sortes dans la zone espagnole seront affectés aux dépenses de ladite zone.

Art. XI. Le Gouvernement chérifien ne pourra être appelé à participer à aucun titre aux dépenses de la zone espagnole.

Art. XII. [Rights of investors in the loans of 1904 and 1910 within the Spanish zone.]

Art. XIII. D'autre part, il y a lieu d'assurer à la zone française et à la zone espagnole le produit revenant à chacune d'elles sur les droits de douane perçus à l'importation.

Les deux Gouvernements conviennent :

Art. XVI. L'autonomie des zones d'influence française et espagnole dans l'Empire chérifien ne pouvant porter atteinte aux droits, prérogatives et privilèges concédés, conformément à l'Acte d'Algésiras, à la Banque d'Etat du Maroc, pour tout le territoire de l'Empire, par le Gouvernement marocain, la Banque d'Etat du Maroc continuera de jouir dans chacune des deux zones de tous les droits qu'elle tient des actes qui la régissent, sans diminution ni réserve. L'autonomie des deux zones ne pourra pas faire obstacle à son action et les deux Gouvernements faciliteront à la Banque d'Etat le libre et complet exercice de ses droits.

La Banque d'Etat du Maroc pourra, d'accord avec les deux Puissances intéressées, modifier les conditions de son fonctionnement en vue de les mettre en harmonie avec l'organisation territoriale de chaque zone.

Afin de préciser et de compléter l'entente intervenue entre les deux Gouvernements et constatée par la lettre adressée le

23 février 1907 par le Ministre des Affaires Étrangères de la République à l'Ambassadeur de Sa Majesté le Roi d'Espagne à Paris, le Gouvernement français s'engage, en ce qui concerne la zone espagnole, sous réserve des droits de la banque :

1° A n'appuyer aucune candidature auprès de la Banque d'État ;

2° A faire connaître à la Banque son désir de voir prendre en considération, pour les emplois de ladite zone, les candidatures de nationalité espagnole.

Réciproquement le Gouvernement espagnole s'engage en ce qui concerne la zone française, sous réserve des droits de la banque :

1° A n'appuyer aucune candidature auprès de la Banque d'État ;

2° A faire connaître à la banque son désir de voir prendre en considération, pour les emplois de ladite zone, les candidatures de nationalité française. . . .

Art. XVII. L'autonomie administrative des zones d'influence française et espagnole dans l'Empire chérifien ne pouvant porter atteinte aux droits, prérogatives et privilèges concédés, conformément à l'Acte général d'Algésiras, pour tout le territoire de l'Empire par le Gouvernement marocain, à la Société internationale de Régie coïntéressée des Tabacs au Maroc, ladite société continuera de jouir, dans chacune des deux zones, de tous les droits qu'elle tient des actes qui la régissent sans diminution ni réserve. L'autonomie des deux zones ne pourra pas faire obstacle à son action, et les deux Gouvernements lui faciliteront le libre et complet exercice de ses droits.

Les conditions actuelles de l'exploitation du monopole, et en particulier le tarif des prix de vente, ne pourront être modifiés que d'accord entre les deux Gouvernements. . . .

Art. XVIII. [Moroccan representation on the Customs Committees, &c.]

Art. XIX. Le Gouvernement de la République française et le Gouvernement de Sa Majesté Catholique se concerteront en vue de :

1° Toutes les modifications qui devraient être apportées dans l'avenir aux droits de douane ;

2° L'unification des tarifs postaux et télégraphiques dans l'intérieur de l'Empire.

Art. XX. La ligne de Chemin de Fer Tanger-Fez sera con-

struite et exploitée dans les conditions déterminées par le protocole annexé à la présente Convention.

Art. XXI. Le Gouvernement de la République française et le Gouvernement de Sa Majesté Catholique s'engagent à provoquer la revision, d'accord avec les autres Puissances et sur la base de la Convention de Madrid, des listes et de la situation des protégés étrangers et des associés agricoles visés par les articles VIII et XVI de cette Convention.

Ils conviennent également de poursuivre auprès des Puissances signataires toute modification de la Convention de Madrid que comporteraient, le moment venu, le changement du régime des protégés et associés agricoles, et éventuellement l'abrogation de la partie de ladite Convention concernant les protégés et associés agricoles.

Art. XXII. Les sujets marocains originaires de la zone d'influence espagnole seront placés à l'étranger sous la protection des agents diplomatiques et consulaires de l'Espagne.

Art. XXIII. Pour éviter autant que possible les réclamations diplomatiques, les Gouvernements français et espagnol s'emploieront respectivement auprès du Sultan et de son khalifa pour que les plaintes portées par des ressortissants étrangers contre les autorités marocaines ou les personnes agissant en tant qu'autorités marocaines, et qui n'auraient pu être réglées par l'entremise du consul français ou espagnol et du consul du Gouvernement intéressé, soient déferées à un arbitre *ad hoc* pour chaque affaire, désigné d'un commun accord par le consul de France ou celui d'Espagne et par celui de la Puissance intéressée ou, à leur défaut, par les deux Gouvernements de ces consuls.

Art. XXIV. Le Gouvernement de la République française et le Gouvernement de Sa Majesté Catholique se réservent la faculté de procéder à l'établissement, dans leurs zones respectives, d'organisations judiciaires inspirées de leurs législations. Une fois ces organisations établies et les nationaux et protégés de chaque pays soumis, dans la zone de celui-ci, à la juridiction de ces tribunaux, le Gouvernement de la République française dans la zone d'influence espagnole, et le Gouvernement de Sa Majesté le Roi d'Espagne, dans la zone d'influence française, soumettront également à cette juridiction locale leurs nationaux et protégés respectifs.

Tant que le paragraphe 3 de l'article XI de la Convention

de Madrid du 3 juillet 1880 sera en vigueur, la faculté qui appartient au Ministre des Affaires Étrangères de Sa Majesté chérifienne de connaître en appel des questions de propriété immobilière des étrangers fera partie, pour ce qui concerne la zone espagnole, de l'ensemble des pouvoirs délégués au khalifa.

Art. XXV. [Suppression of contraband.]

Art. XXVI. Les accords internationaux conclus à l'avenir par Sa Majesté chérifienne ne s'étendront à la zone d'influence espagnole qu'avec le consentement préalable du Gouvernement de Sa Majesté le Roi d'Espagne.

Art. XXVII. [The convention of February 26, 1904 (between France and Spain, for arbitration, B. and F. State Papers, vol. xcvi, p. 1180), renewed February 3, 1909, and the Convention of the Hague, October 18, 1907, to be applicable in case of differences of interpretation.]

Art. XXVIII. [This convention to supersede previous ones if contrary.]

Art. XXIX. La présente Convention sera notifiée aux Gouvernements signataires de l'Acte général de la Fédération internationale d'Algésiras.

Art. XXX. La présente Convention sera ratifiée et les ratifications en seront échangées à Madrid dans le plus bref délai.

En foi de quoi

Fait en double expédition à Madrid, le 27 novembre 1912.

(L.S.) GEOFFRAY.

(L.S.) MANUEL GARCIA PRIETO.

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I. GEOGRAPHY PHYSICAL AND POLITICAL

(1) POSITION AND FRONTIERS

THE colony of Senegal, ceded to France by the Treaty of Paris in 1814, consists of the whole region between the Senegal river, the Atlantic Ocean, and French and Portuguese Guinea, with the exception of the British colony of the Gambia, which forms an enclave about 200 miles in length and some 30 miles in breadth between Senegal proper and the district of Kasamanse. French Senegal lies roughly between 12° and $16^{\circ} 40'$ north latitude and $11^{\circ} 20'$ and $17^{\circ} 40'$ west longitude, and occupies an area of 74,000 square miles.

On the west Senegal is bounded by the Atlantic Ocean, on the south it is divided from Portuguese Guinea by a line which was fixed by treaty in 1886 and delimited 1902-5, running east from a point midway between the mouths of the Kasamanse and Kasheo (Cacheo), keeping at an equal distance from both rivers, and then following the parallel $12^{\circ} 40'$ north from about 15° west longitude to $13^{\circ} 40'$ west longitude. The southern boundary then extends from the latter point along the northern border of French Guinea by an irregular line which passes north of Itiu and Medina Kuta to Irimalo.

From Irimalo the eastern and northern boundaries follow the courses first of the Faleme and then of the Senegal river itself as far as its outlet into the Atlantic Ocean.

The boundary of the British colony of the Gambia follows the Gambia river at a distance of 6 to 15 miles on each side as far as the river port of Yabu Tenda, which was ceded to France under the Anglo-French Convention of April 8, 1904.

(2) SURFACE, COAST, AND RIVER SYSTEM

Surface

That part of Senegal colony which lies north of the Gambia river is an arid, sandy plain, seldom rising over 500 ft. above sea-level. Though devoid of surface water for eight months of the year, it produces luxuriant pastures after the rains. The difficulties of obtaining water, however, have now been largely overcome by the excellent system of wells which has been introduced by the French, these assuring a permanent water supply.

South of the Gambia colony is the valley of the Kasamanse, which is very fertile, while in the south-east, between the Gambia and Faleme, the northern part of the Futa Jalon massif forms a compact mountain district traversed by fertile valleys and attaining a maximum altitude of 4,000 ft.

This mountainous region is carried over the border of the neighbouring colony of Upper Senegal and Niger by the steep range of the Tamba-Ura.

Coast

The total length of the coast-line (excluding that of the Gambia colony) is about 260 miles. Between the mouth of the Senegal and the port of St. Louis it is defended from the sea by a triple row of sandbanks, which form bars at the river mouths; these bars are a serious obstacle in the way of the proper development of the Senegalese harbours. Further south the coast becomes marshy and fertile.

River System

The southern part of French Senegal is traversed by various small streams, which have sluggish courses and find their way to the sea through regions of marsh. The most important of these is the Kasamanse, whose course lies just to the north of the frontier of Portuguese Guinea, and which, entering the sea at Carabane, has a fairly wide estuary.

The upper waters of the Gambia, as far as Yabu Tenda, flow through French Senegal, but this part of the river is not of much practical value, and by far the most important part of its course lies within British territory.

The Senegal, however, which forms the northern and to a great extent the eastern boundary, is the most important of the rivers. It has a course of about 1,000 miles, and is formed by the confluence of the Bakhoy (White) and Bafing (Black) rivers, which meet at Bafulabe. The first of these two rivers rises in the hills which divide the basins of the Senegal and Niger, and the second in the northern part of the Futa Jalon (see the section on "Surface" above).

After the meeting of these two rivers, the Senegal, thus formed, flows north-north-west between rocky banks, its course being much interrupted by falls. Between Kayes, which is just across the Upper Senegal and Niger border, and Bakel there are 27 sets of narrows. Just before reaching Bakel the Senegal receives from the south its most important tributary, the Faleme (see below). It then flows in a north-westerly direction through flat country to the sea, dividing to form a series of long fertile islands and *marigots* (lagoons). At its mouth the Senegal is both wide and deep, but the estuary is closed by a shifting bar. Works have been undertaken with the object of reducing the bar and fixing the position of the river mouth.

The river, which has a slight gradient, is subject to great seasonal variations, while every few years an abnormal rise occurs which inundates and fertilizes the country for 10 to 15 miles on each side of the banks.

The Faleme, the chief tributary of the Senegal, rises in the Futa Jalon, and consists of a series of reaches often 10 ft. or 12 ft. deep, separated by reefs, falls and rapids.

South of the town of Richard-Toll, near the mouth of the Senegal, is Lake Guier, or Panieful ($7\frac{1}{2}$ by 5 miles in extent), which extends as far as Merinaghen.

This stretch of water, if dammed, would be a valuable reservoir, and would provide a waterway from the Senegal to the sandy wastes of the Jolof country.

(3) CLIMATE

The nearness of the country to the Equator and its exposure to the moisture-laden west winds from the Atlantic render both heat and damp in Senegal excessive.

Temperature.—The average temperatures are higher on the coast than inland. The January means are 72° F. (22° C.) at St. Louis, 70° F. (21° C.) at Dakar, 62° F. (16½° C.) at Kayes; and at this period the nights are often fairly cool. From March to May is a period of intense heat, which is usually rainless; mean temperatures at this time are 71° F. (21½° C.) at St. Louis, 73° F. (23° C.) at Dakar, and 95° F. (35° C.) at Kayes. The intense heats of the rainy season are at their greatest in September and October, when the mean temperatures are 85° F. (29½° C.) at St. Louis, 82° F. (28° C.) at Dakar, and 85° F. (29½° C.) at Kayes.

Rainfall.—The dry season begins in November or December, and ends about May or June. During this time the prevalent wind is the *harmattan*, which blows from the north and is dry and bracing. The rainy season begins at the end of June or early in July, and is often accompanied by violent storms and stifling damp heat. The rains decrease in amount from south to north and from west to east. The amount varies from 12·5 in. (318 mm.) at St. Louis, of which three-quarters fall in August, and 19·89 in. (505 mm.) at Dakar to the enormous amount of 157·5 in. (4,000 mm.) in the intensely hot Kasamanse valley.

(4) SANITARY CONDITIONS

The climate of French Senegal is, on the whole, the least healthy of that of any of the French possessions in Africa, and the country is certainly less suitable for

European residence than Upper Senegal and Niger. The worst districts are the valleys of the Kasamanse and Salum and that of the Senegal near Kayes, all of which regions are swampy and infested with malaria and dysentery.

The principal scourge of the native population is sleeping-sickness, which is especially prevalent in the valley of the Kasamanse. Attempts are being made to combat this disease by the destruction of jungle in which the *glossina palpalis* breeds, and also by inducing those natives working in infected areas to wear clothing. A bacteriological laboratory at Bamako is devoted to the study of the disease. Other diseases common among the natives are small-pox, leprosy, elephantiasis, and guinea worm; but these are seldom contracted by Europeans, who are most affected by malaria, which is endemic in all the river valleys, dysentery resulting from infected water, bilious fever, and rheumatism.

The health of the towns, however, has now greatly improved, owing to sanitary measures. Dakar, which was formerly a hotbed of disease and particularly subject to outbreaks of yellow fever, now seldom suffers from the latter plague, while malaria has been reduced by half. The French do their best to fight the malaria-carrying mosquito wherever possible, and have carried out many drainage works in swampy districts.

(5) RACE AND LANGUAGE

Race

The native inhabitants of Senegal fall into two main categories; the first composed of various pastoral and more or less nomad peoples, of which the chief are the Moors and Peuls, and the second of Negro races which chiefly inhabit the coast regions.

Of this latter class the most important are the Wolofs. These are an indigenous negro stock, forming the bulk of the coast population between St. Louis

and the Gambia, and extending inland to the Faleme. They are pure negroes of a fine physical type, and are described as docile, industrious, and fairly intelligent. In religion they are Moslems, and number over 420,000.

Another people, closely related to the Wolofs in race and dialect, is the tribe of the Serers, who are, however, much less intelligent. The Serers inhabit the Salum, Sine, Lower Kasamanse, and Cape Verde districts, and number about 220,000. They are fetishists, and much addicted to magic.

Of the pastoral peoples the chief are the Moors, of whom many migrate into Senegal during the dry season, returning to the deserts of the north when the rains come. The Moorish tribes appear to number about 16,000, but any exact estimate of their numbers is impossible. The Peuls are another important group who have established themselves in the Futa Jalon district, although they have penetrated to every region suitable for grazing. Their approximate number is 120,000. Both these peoples are Moslems.

A fuller discussion of these and the various other tribes inhabiting the country will be found in *Upper Senegal and Niger*, No. 107 of this series.

Language

Arabic is spoken by the Moors, and Fula or Peul by the Peuls. Among the many tribes composing the rest of the population there are countless varying dialects spoken, though some have achieved much greater importance than others. Thus Wolof has become the commercial dialect for the whole of Senegal, and Fula has spread to many other races beside the Peuls.

(6) POPULATION

Distribution

In 1911 the total population of Senegal was 1,247,301, of whom 5,000 were Europeans, as against 1,128,438 in 1908, of whom 4,844 were Europeans.

The figures for 1916 are given as 1,259,920, including 4,113 Europeans.

Senegal, like most other countries in the equatorial regions, is thinly inhabited, having an average only of about 17 persons per square mile. The population in general increases from north to south, depending largely upon the adequacy or otherwise of the water supply.

Towns and Villages

The majority of the inhabitants, with the exception of the Moors and other more or less nomad races, are village-dwellers, and there are few large towns. The chief are the French settlements of St. Louis (with 21,801 native inhabitants), Dakar (16,148), and Rufisque (11,793), all of which are situated on the coast.

Movement

There are no detailed figures available, but it is probable that the native population is increasing, the Wolofs and Peuls in particular showing a substantial excess of births over deaths. It may be noted that between 1908 and 1911 the populations of the towns in Senegal decreased, although the contrary was the case in the neighbouring colony of Upper Senegal and Niger.

II. POLITICAL HISTORY

CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY

- 1626 Beginning of French activity on the Senegal.
- 1700-15 Effective settlement on the Senegal by Royal Senegal Company.
- 1727 Argin acquired from the Netherlands.
- 1758 Senegal passes to the English.
- 1783 Restoration of Senegal to France, subject to right of English to trade to Portendic.
- 1814 Restoration to France of her African possessions as they existed on January 1, 1792.
- 1817 Exploration of territory round Senegal begun.
- 1854-63 Faidherbe, as Governor, extends limits of colony, defeating El Haj Omar.
- 1857 Britain abandons rights at Portendic in exchange for French factory of Albreda.
- 1868-69 and 1875-76. Abortive suggestions for cession of the Gambia to France.
- 1889 Boundary of Senegal and the Gambia defined.
- 1891 Further arrangements for delimitation of Gambia boundary. (June 9).
- 1904 Modification of Senegal-Gambia boundary. Yabu Tenda ceded to France. Senegal becomes part of Government-General of French West Africa, and the protected territories on the left bank of the Senegal are added to it.

(1) *Creation of the Colony*

THERE is some evidence¹ that about 1364 Dieppe merchants succeeded in reaching the Senegal coast, and that in the following years they penetrated further south and established themselves at Elmina, Accra, and Kormantin on the Gold Coast. It is more certain that from 1470 onwards French, Portuguese, and English vessels began to visit the coast for trade, with-

¹ See *Journal of the African Society*, VII, 190-204.

out, however, establishing any lasting political control. After 1626, when a Norman chartered company began attempts at settlement, the efforts of France to obtain possession of the coast became definite. In 1637 an expedition under Captain Lambert explored the River Senegal for 110 miles from its mouth, and established a fort at St. Louis. The Norman company parted with its interests to the French West India Company, which in its turn passed them on to the Royal Senegal Company; and it was owing to the efforts of the representative of this association, A. Brue, in the period from 1700-15, that the sovereignty of France on the Senegal river came to be effectively established. In 1727 Argin was ceded by the Netherlands to France. In 1758, however, as a result of the war in Europe, Senegal passed into British hands, but by the Treaty of Versailles (1783) Senegal and Goree, with the forts of St. Louis, Podor, Galam, Argin, and Portendic were restored to France, subject to the right of the English to carry on the gum trade from the Bay of Saint John to the port of Portendic. The territory suffered further vicissitudes in the Revolutionary and Napoleonic wars; but the treaties of 1814 and 1815 restored to France her possessions in Africa as they existed on January 1, 1792.

The restoration of the territory was followed by French activity in exploration. In 1818 the sources of the Gambia were discovered, and Kaarta was explored; in 1827 R. Callié reached the Upper Niger by the River Nuñez, and penetrated to Timbuktu. Advance, however, in this direction was blocked by the revival of the Fula power under El Haj Omar, while the Trarzas, whose territory lay on the northern bank of the Senegal, were unwilling to accept French sovereignty. The creation of the Colony of Senegal was due, in fact, to the work of General Faidherbe, who held the office of Governor with one short interval from 1854 to 1863. When he arrived the Colony consisted only of St. Louis, two or three villages on Barbary Point, the islands of Sor, Babage, and Goree, and a few isolated

forts, the furthest inland being Senudebu, on the Faleme. The total population was only 17,466, and the surrounding country was thinly populated and scantily cultivated. Faidherbe defeated the Moorish tribes from the north of the Senegal, built the fort of Medina to check the advance of El Haj Omar, defeated his army of 20,000 men, compelled him in 1860 to accept a treaty of protection, and annexed many territories on the Upper Senegal, the country intervening between St. Louis and the Gambia, and the valley of the Kasamanse river between the Gambia and Portuguese Guinea, thus in large measure cutting off the Gambia from any possibility of expansion. His internal reforms were no less important; he organized a police service, supplied St. Louis with water, built roads and bridges, and opened a civil school to which Mohammedan parents could send their children. When Faidherbe resigned his post, he had in effect acquired all the territory which is now subject to direct administration, as distinct from the Protectorate, which in 1904 was ascribed to Senegal and detached from the French Sudan, and the acquisition of which falls in the period after 1880. The only matter of importance left outstanding was the determination of the exact boundaries with the Gambia and Portuguese Guinea.

(2) *Boundaries with the Gambia and Portuguese Guinea*

Boundary with the Gambia.—By a Convention of March 7, 1857, the English right of trading to Portendic was abandoned in return for the surrender by France of her factory at Albreda on the River Gambia, which she claimed the right to occupy under the Treaty of 1815.¹ The actual boundary with the Gambia was determined by Article I of the arrangement of August 10, 1889, and a delimitation was accepted by a *procès-verbal* of June 9, 1891, the results of which were

¹ France retained a right of access to the Gambia for commercial purposes, and *de facto* engrossed most of the trade.

slightly modified by Boundary Commissions from 1895 to 1905. Under the Anglo-French Convention of April 8, 1904, a substantial concession was made to France; Yabu Tenda being conceded to that Power and a guarantee being given of free access to the river at some other point if Yabu Tenda proved to be beyond the limits of navigation.¹ The obvious advantage to Senegal of securing the Gambia led to negotiations both in 1868-69,² and in 1875-76, which would have given France the Gambia in exchange for the surrender of her claims further south; but these proposals, which met with strong opposition in England, fell through owing to the objections raised by the inhabitants of the Gambia, and by merchants trading to it, to the transfer of that territory to French control and to its subjection to a protective tariff.

Boundary with Portuguese Guinea.—On the south the boundary with Portuguese territory remained undefined until laid down by the Convention of May 12, 1886.

¹ It appears that prior to the war France had not taken advantage of this concession. See *Gambia*, No. 91 of this series.

² See H.C. Paper No. 444 of 1870.

III. SOCIAL AND POLITICAL CONDITIONS

(1) RELIGIOUS

THE religious conditions in Senegal are described in *French West Africa*, No. 100 of this series.

(2) POLITICAL

By the Decree of October 18, 1904, Senegal forms part of the Government-General of West Africa, and is divided into two portions; the territory under direct administration, and the Protectorate, until that date part of Senegambia-Niger. The distinction between the two portions of the territory is pronounced. The Protectorate has a separate budget, and is governed on the same lines as the other French West African Colonies, the Lieutenant-Governor being assisted by the Privy Council of Senegal, augmented by two native members and serving as a Council of Administration. The Colony proper has a General Council, and four municipal Communes—St. Louis, Dakar, Goree, and Rufisque, constituted by Decrees of 1872 and 1880. The natives of these four Communes are French citizens as well as subjects, and enjoy the franchise in elections to the General Council and to the governing bodies of the Communes, and the Council returns a deputy to the French Parliament. For administrative purposes the Lieutenant-Governor is aided by a Privy Council.

The General Council enjoys large powers in matters of finance and taxation, although the provisions of the Decree of December 30, 1912, ensure the per-

formance of all absolutely necessary public services, and the Council is liable at any time to be overridden by a French law. In practice, even more importance attaches to the control of the municipalities which is enjoyed by the native population, though these bodies also are in financial matters subject to governmental control. The natives of these Communes also enjoy the special right of being subject to the jurisdiction of the French Courts alone, not only in Senegal itself, but also within the sphere of jurisdiction of the Courts of First Instance and Justices of the Peace with extended powers in other parts of French West Africa.¹

(3) MILITARY ORGANIZATION

Military organization in Senegal is described in *French West Africa*.

(4) PUBLIC EDUCATION

Public education in Senegal is described in *French West Africa*.

¹ Decree of March 9, 1914.

IV. ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

(A) MEANS OF COMMUNICATION

BEFORE the establishment in 1904 of the General Budget, the Colonies of French West Africa were unable, owing to the insufficiency of their individual credit and resources, to pursue the execution of the large public works necessary for the economic development of the country. The General Budget provides for services common to the whole of French West Africa, and since its creation large loans have been raised and the means of communication have been improved.

(1) INTERNAL

(a) *Roads*

The only roads, properly so-called, in Senegal are in the towns and their immediate neighbourhood. There are, however, numerous tracks and caravan routes traversing the country in every direction. These are constructed simply by clearing and levelling the ground, and their upkeep does not entail any great expenditure. One of the most important is that which starts from Tivawane and crosses Baol. On most of these tracks light vehicles can travel during the dry season. The principal means of transport are native porters, who carry goods on their heads, and pack animals—camels, oxen, and donkeys—which of late have been increasingly employed. Horses, which are used only for riding, and camels are numerous in the northern part of the colony, in Baol, and even in Salum, but they cannot be acclimatised in Bundu, Upper Gambia, and other southern provinces. The donkey can be used everywhere.

(b) *Rivers*

In Senegal, as in most parts of Africa, the value of the rivers is much diminished by the great variation in

the height of the water at the different seasons of the year, and by the bars at the river mouths. Nevertheless the Senegal river is the principal trade route of the country and the chief means of access to the interior.

The *River Senegal* is navigable during the high-water season as far as Kayes in Upper Senegal and Niger, 924 km. from the mouth. Although the channel as far as Kayes has been buoyed, navigation is always difficult. From August 20 to September 20 sea-going vessels of about 800 to 1,000 tons and drawing about 15 ft. can go up to Kayes, which is thus in direct communication with Europe. They are generally obliged, however, to unload partially at Dakar in order to cross the bar of the Senegal, and then to load again at St. Louis with merchandise which has come by rail from Dakar. From August 1 to October 15 Kayes can be reached by river steamers drawing 10 ft., from July 14 to November 10 by launches drawing 6 ft., and from July 1 to December 15 by flat-bottomed stern-wheelers drawing 2 ft. Podor can be reached at all seasons by steamers drawing 10 ft., and Mafu is always accessible for sternwheelers. During the season of low water barges can be used between Mafu and Kayes, but they have sometimes to unload when they cross the shallows, and during April and May navigation is almost impossible even for them.

Kayes is in regular communication with the port of St. Louis by the steamers of the *Compagnie des Messageries Africaines*, which leave St. Louis every fortnight. The journey up the river takes three to five days, and the return journey two to three. During the dry season, the company's steamers cannot go beyond Podor, above which transport is supplied first by stern-wheelers belonging to the Government of Upper Senegal and Niger, and, above Mafu, by barges carrying from two to five tons. When the water is at its lowest the journey takes at least fifteen days.

The river is not open to any but French shipping above the bridge at St. Louis.

Of such tributaries of the Senegal as flow through the territory under consideration, the *Faleme* is navigable by steamers not exceeding 10 ft. in draught from the middle of July to the middle of September as far as Golongina-Koba, 170 km. from its junction with the main stream. Between Golongina and Waiagu the rapids render navigation by steamers impossible at any time; and it is only with great difficulty that barges are towed up during the flood season. From Waiagu to Irimalo the river is navigable by vessels drawing 3 ft. from July to October. For the first six months of the year, however, the Faleme is not navigable at all.

The *Salum*, which enters the sea about midway between Dakar and Bathurst, is now a tidal estuary, receiving fresh water only during the rains. It is navigable for about 145 km. from its mouth. The principal ports are Fundiun and Kaolak; the latter is about 95 km. from the mouth and can be reached by large vessels at all seasons. Barges can ascend as far as the village of Tikat, close to Malem. The banks of the Salum are marshy, and vessels have to load and discharge at long wooden jetties. The chief arm of the Salum, the *Sine*, ascends north from Fundiun, 12 miles from the coast, to the edge of the Ferlo. Lighters can get as far north as Fatik, whence they bring cargoes of ground-nuts to Fundiun.

The *Kasamanse* is accessible for ships of considerable tonnage as far as Adeane, on the opposite bank to the tributary known as the Songrogru, and for schooners and cutters as far as Sedhiu, 165 km. from the coast; barges and canoes can reach Garcia, where a rocky dam bars further progress. At Ziginchor, the most important port of the district, there is a depth of 23 ft., and large ships can reach this port if they are guided by special pilots. The port of Balandine, north of the river, is accessible through the *marigots*. Numerous other *marigots*, extending in every direction, form a network of waterways.

(c) Railways

The first railway to be constructed in Senegal was the line from Dakar to St. Louis, which was completed in 1885. Since at the time of its construction the credit of the colony was very low, it had to be conceded to a company. It was arranged that the State should provide 15,000,000 francs, three-quarters of the capital required; that the company should provide the remainder, the State guaranteeing a revenue of 1,154 francs per km. of line opened; and that the concession should last for 99 years. The company was formed in 1883. The agreement between the company and the Government contemplated the establishment of a reserve fund to provide for improvements, the surplus of which should be assigned to the State to indemnify it against liability under the kilometric guarantee. Since 1900 the State has no longer furnished a guarantee, and has recovered, by means of annual reimbursements, a part of the advances made by it to the company. The finances of the company are in a very flourishing condition, owing chiefly to the development of the ground-nut trade in the districts through which the railway passes.

This line has been a very important agent in the pacification of the regions it traverses; but the economic development of the country was not foreseen, and it was therefore constructed as cheaply as possible, the cost, under the initial contract, being 68,000 francs per km. The rapid growth of traffic, however, necessitated a strengthening of the line, which brought the total cost of construction to 21,698,630 francs, or 82,200 francs per km.

The railway is 264 km. long, and runs through a region which is almost entirely flat, the greatest height it reaches being only 110 metres above sea-level; there are consequently no engineering works of any importance. The line is single and one metre in gauge.

The journey from St. Louis to Dakar takes about 10 hours; there are two trains in each direction daily and an express once a week. In addition, during the

season of the ground-nut trade, there is a goods service of about ten trains a day, and sometimes more.

A railway is in course of construction from Thies, on the Dakar—St. Louis line, to Ambidedi, where it will reach the River Senegal, and Kayes. This railway will be of the greatest value to the French colonies. Not only will it lead to increased production in the country through which it passes, but it will also serve as a stimulus to the commerce of Upper Senegal and Niger, which has hitherto been hampered by the difficulties of transport on the Senegal river. In 1915 the line was completed from Thies to Cotiari-Naude, a distance of 422 km., with a branch of 22 km. from Gingineo to Kaolak. At the other end of the route, in the colony of Upper Senegal and Niger, the section from Kayes to Ambidedi, 44 km. in length, has been constructed. The total cost of the line, it is estimated, will be 50,000,000 francs, or 73,000 francs per km. Up to April 1, 1913, when 396 km. of the Senegal part of the line had been constructed, including the Kaolak branch, the expenditure was 27,170,000 francs, or 68,600 francs per km. The Kayes—Ambidedi section cost 3,050,000 or 69,300 francs per km.

The train service was reduced during the war. On most sections of the line from Thies to Cotiari-Naude there was in 1915 one train a day in each direction, but between Thies and N'Diurbel two trains a day were run, and between Kussauar and Kungheul there was an extra train each way twice a week.

The receipts and expenditure, and the number of passengers and amount of goods carried on the completed sections during the years 1910 to 1913 were as follows:—

	Receipts.	Expenditure.	Goods.	Passengers.
	Frs.	Frs.	Tons.	No.
1910 ..	952,407	950,592		
1911 ..	1,222,234	832,680		
1912 ..	1,188,603	1,135,922	66,099	192,163
1913 ..	1,478,632	1,448,086	76,464	249,793

The receipts and expenditure of this line have been incorporated in a special budget attached to the General Budget.

(d) *Posts, Telegraphs, Telephones*

In 1915 there were 59 post and telegraph offices in Senegal. The mails are carried by train, boat, or native runners. Most of the large towns have a telephone system, and Dakar, Rufisque, and Goree are connected by telephone.

(2) EXTERNAL

(a) *Ports*

The three chief ports of Senegal are St. Louis, Dakar, and Rufisque. There are also various small ports on the Salum and Kasamanse estuaries.

The port of *St. Louis*, which is situated on an island 18.5 km. above the mouth of the Senegal, has a completely protected anchorage, but the approach is over a dangerous shifting bar, which frequently obliges ships drawing over 8 ft. to wait outside for days or unload partially before they can enter. Various surveys have been made with a view to reducing the dangers of entering the river and the port, but so far no works have been carried out. From St. Louis there is direct access by water to the interior, and it is connected by rail with Dakar. It is the chief port for goods going to and coming from the French Sudan.

The principal natural harbour of Senegal is formed by the Cape Verde peninsula, which encloses a bay facing south-east and affording a safe and deep anchorage. Its entrance is 3,200 metres wide, and the distance from the entrance to the shore 1,600 metres. On the west side of the bay is the great commercial and naval port of *Dakar*, with an artificial harbour formed by two jetties, respectively 650 metres and 2,080 metres in length, and with an entrance 250 metres wide. The natural depth in the region of the entrance is from 28 ft. to 32 ft. 9 in., and it has been regularised to at

least 30 ft. 6 in. Immediately outside the jetties the sea bottom falls very rapidly to a great depth. Access to the port is thus safe and easy.

The total area of the part of the Dakar roads sheltered by the jetties is about 225 hectares, of which 94 are dredged. A depth of 30 ft. 6 in. has been secured on 49 hectares, of 26 ft. on 17 hectares, and of 21 ft. on 28 hectares. The area 30 ft. 6 in. in depth forms the naval port, but may be used by merchant ships.

The commercial port comprises three basins, one 28 ft. in depth and the others 21 ft. These basins are separated by two moles 80 and 100 metres wide respectively, and each about 300 metres long. The total length of the quays is 2,087 metres, of which 708 metres have 28 ft. of water alongside, and the remainder 21 ft.

It is proposed to construct a half-mole against the southern jetty and to dredge that part of the roads which is at present unused. This work will increase the number of anchorages for ships in the roads by four, and the number of berths at the quay by five.

The port possesses nine sheds, covering a total area of 5,185 square metres, 3 km. of railways, pipes for the distribution of water to all the quays, three electric cranes with a lifting capacity of $1\frac{1}{2}$ tons each, and a pontoon of 50 tons. The sum of 1,600,000 francs is to be set apart for the completion of the port's equipment, which will eventually include three new sheds, with an aggregate area of 1,800 square metres, three cranes similar to those already in use, and 1 km. of new rails.

The Navy has constructed a dry dock 200 metres long, 25 metres broad, and $28\frac{1}{2}$ ft. deep, and erected workshops for the repairing of ships. Merchant vessels are permitted to use these works. There are also the workshops and the patent slip of the Compagnie des Charbonnages; the latter can receive ships of several thousand tons.

There are two coaling companies at Dakar. The Compagnie Française des Charbonnages has great stores to the west of the roads, and keeps a permanent

stock of 5,000 tons. The "Sénégal" company, formed by four Italian shipping companies, can ship as much as 140 tons an hour by means of four lighters.

The position of Dakar on the most westerly point of the African continent makes it a suitable port of call for vessels plying between Europe and ports of the South Atlantic. It has, however, three formidable competitors in Santa Cruz de Tenerife and Las Palmas, in the Canary Islands, and St. Vincent, in the Cape Verde Islands, all of which are long-established ports of call for vessels trading with the Cape or South America. The Government of French West Africa has neglected nothing which might attract shipping to Dakar. It has been made a cheap port; no dues are exacted, except for services rendered, such as pilotage, and in no case are the charges heavy; water is supplied at a low rate; and great advantages have been given to the "Sénégal" company in order to enable ships to coal quickly.

Dakar is the chief port for the import trade of Senegal, as is shown by the following statistics of the value of the imports discharged at Senegalese ports in 1913 and 1914:—

	1913.	1914.
	Frs.	Frs.
Dakar	41,049,318	35,674,675
St. Louis	13,004,179	14,426,552
Rufisque	24,107,030	20,589,470
Other ports	9,910,268	9,377,956

The leading position of Dakar is largely due to the fact that goods can be much more speedily handled there than at any of the other ports. When the completion of the Thies—Kayes railway gives Dakar direct communication with the Sudan, it will undoubtedly take from St. Louis that part of the Sudan traffic that consists of merchandise requiring rapid transport.

On the other hand, the export trade of Dakar is comparatively small. The following figures show the value of the goods shipped from the ports of Senegal in 1913 and 1914:—

	1913.	1914.
	Frs.	Frs.
Dakar	13,396,859	9,536,472
Rufisque	26,692,191	33,150,021
St. Louis	3,527,820	2,322,312
Other ports	26,320,955	35,378,583

The export of ground-nuts, the chief product of Senegal, is mainly carried on from the port of Rufisque, which is near the chief centres of production, and has long been established as the chief ground-nut market. Ground-nuts produced on the banks of the Salum and in adjacent districts are shipped at the ports of that estuary. The handling of this product requires more space than is available for it at Dakar.

The excess of imports over exports at Dakar gives rise to great inconveniences, and it is essential to the future development of the port that ships unloading there should be guaranteed a return freight. At present ships, after discharging at Dakar, are often obliged to go to Rufisque and the Salum ports for a homeward cargo. It is possible that in the future a port in the north of the Dakar roads may be created, with adequate space and apparatus for the shipment of ground-nuts. Such a port might be linked with the Dakar railway by a branch line running on to the quays, which would remove the risk of congestion at the present station at Dakar.

The coasting trade is only of minor importance at Dakar. The chief function of the coasting vessels is to collect or distribute the cargoes of large steamers which do not call at the smaller ports of West Africa. They also carry goods which larger vessels have had to discharge in order to enter the less accessible ports.

The port of Dakar has a special budget, attached to the General Budget, which balances only by the aid of an annual subsidy from the General Government.)

At *Rufisque* there is a pier, 140 metres long, to the east of which there are two wharves, each 198 metres long, for discharging cargo; a third wharf was being constructed in 1913. The anchorage, in from 21 to 42 ft., is good during eight months of the year, but from July to November south-west winds send in a very heavy swell. Ships are always obliged to lie nearly a mile from the shore, and loading and discharging are consequently expensive. The port has been provided with special accommodation for handling ground-nuts.

Kaolak, 120 km. from the mouth of the Salum, can be reached by vessels of 8 ft. draught. Ships moor in a depth of 16 ft. at low tide close to the south bank. *Kaolak* is an important centre for the ground-nut trade.

Carabane, on the Kasamanse river, is frequented by steamers and trading vessels, which either take in cargo alongside the staging or anchor off the port in from 27 to 30 ft. of water. It is a place of some commercial importance.

At *Ziginchor*, on the Kasamanse river, there is a staging with 18 ft. of water alongside.

(b) *Shipping Lines*

Before the war the following steamship lines had regular services to Senegal:—

Compagnie Sud-Atlantique: mail steamers from Bordeaux every fortnight; "mixed" steamers every four weeks.

Chargeurs Réunis: mail steamers every month from Havre; cargo steamers every month from Dunkirk. This line had a service round the world, which touched at Dakar every 45 days on the voyage from South America to La Pallice and Liverpool.

Fraissinet et Cie. : every month from Marseilles.

Société Générale des Transports Maritimes: three times a month from Marseilles, *en route* for South America, with other occasional sailings.

Buhan & Teisseire: every 45 days.

British and African Co.: every month from Liverpool, *en route* for the Congo.

African Steamship Co.: every month from Liverpool, *en route* for the Congo.

Elder, Dempster & Co.: every month.

Compagnie Belge Maritime du Congo: every three weeks from La Pallice.

Compañía General Transatlántica Española: every three months from Barcelona, *en route* for St. Paul de Loanda.

La Veloce Navigazione Italiana and Navigazione Generale Italiana: joint service twice a month.

Woermann Linie, Hamburg-Amerika Linie, Hamburg-Bremer-Afrika Linie, Hamburg Linie: joint service three times a month, *en route* for various ports of West Africa.

Besides the companies enumerated above, several French shipping firms ran steamers to Senegal at irregular intervals.

The Gambia, Kasamanse, and Portuguese Guinea Line maintained two monthly coastal services from Dakar, one to Carabane, Ziginchor, and Bathurst, and the other to Carabane, Ziginchor, and Bissau. The Lévrier Bay Line ran boats every month between Dakar and Port Étienne.

(c) *Telegraphic and Wireless Communications*

Dakar is served by three submarine cables. One connects the port with Brest, and another affords communication with a number of important points on the West African coast. Both of these are under French control. A third line, which belongs to the South American Co., links Dakar and Pernambuco.

There are wireless stations at Dakar and Rufisque. The one at Dakar is used for communication with ships at sea; its normal range is 460 km. by day and 830 by

night. The principal function of the station at Rufisque is to communicate with Konakry and Port Etienne; but it is capable of sending messages as far as the coast of Brazil.

(B) INDUSTRY

(1) LABOUR

Senegal, like the other colonies of French West Africa, is sparsely populated, having only about seven inhabitants to the square kilometre. It was for long devastated by internal warfare, and the population will undoubtedly increase under French rule. As the economic development of the country has not proceeded far, the supply of labour has hitherto been adequate. The Senegalese are docile, and, for Africans, industrious; their intelligence is sufficient for all the kinds of work that are needed. Joiners and carpenters, blacksmiths and locksmiths are numerous and efficient. Unskilled labour is plentiful, and is recruited principally from among the Tukulors and Bambaras. Since the opening up of the country some of the tribes have shown remarkable commercial ability.

Owing to their skilful craftsmanship, the natives of Senegal are much in request, and have been recruited in very large numbers for work in other regions. Their emigration has consequently had to be superintended and controlled by the Government. No person may engage natives for work outside the colony without the permission of the Governor.

Senegal has attracted few European settlers, and in 1913 the number of white residents in the colony did not reach 5,000. The climate restricts the activities of Europeans, but there are said to be good opportunities for men skilled in sedentary trades, such as shoe-making or tailoring.

(2) AGRICULTURE

The area under cultivation in Senegal may be estimated at not less than 150,000 hectares; it lies principally in the districts of Walo, Cayor, and Baol.

(a) *Products of Commercial Value*

(i) *Vegetable Products.*—*Cotton* is cultivated, and also grows wild. The native variety is very white, and although it is a little short the natives succeed in weaving it into a strong fabric. The yield varies greatly according to the conditions, but may be estimated at between 250 and 400 kg. of unginned cotton per hectare.

Experiments have been made in the cultivation of the American and Egyptian varieties. In the valley of the River Senegal there are large areas where cotton-growing will be possible when a scheme of irrigation has been devised and carried out.

Ground-nuts are the principal source of the colony's wealth, and the value of the export of ground-nuts is three times as great as that of all the other exports together. In 1913 the export amounted to nearly 230,000 metric tons, valued at over 57,000,000 francs. The districts with the largest production are those of Cayor, Baol, Salum, and Niani-Uli. The ground-nut is also extensively cultivated in Upper Gambia and Kasamanse, but here the soil is not very suitable and the crop is comparatively poor. The construction of railways has given a great stimulus to the export trade, for ground-nuts are heavy, and unless mechanical means of transport are available cannot be profitably grown, except near the ports.

The nut yields a fine colourless oil which is used for the table and in the manufacture of margarine, cheese, and various conserves. After the oil has been expressed, the residual cake forms a valuable feeding stuff for cattle and other stock, and damaged and mouldy ground-nut cake is used widely as a fertiliser. The ground-nut plants are harvested at the same time as the nuts and used as food for cattle; they are sold in the interior of the country at about 10 centimes the kilogram.

The yield of ground-nuts in Senegal is reported to be from 1,500 to 1,800 kg. per hectare. From 100 kg.

of the finer varieties, 30 kg. of fine edible oil and 7 or 8 kg. of manufacturing oil can be obtained.

In the rotation of crops the ground-nut is of great value, as it is a leguminous plant which has the power of fixing the nitrogen of the air and making it available in the soil as plant food. Notwithstanding the rapid increase of its cultivation in West Africa, there is little danger of over-production, as ground-nut oil is in growing demand.

Gum, which used to be one of the most important products, has of late declined in value, owing to the use of dextrine as a substitute for it, and to the increase of the exports from the Egyptian Sudan. Its commercial importance, however, is still considerable. It is furnished chiefly by the *Acacia vereke*, which is abundant in Walo, Jolof, and Cayor, but the product of this tree is sometimes mixed with gum derived from other varieties. Much of the gum exported from Senegalese ports comes from outside the colony. The most valuable kind, worth between 65 and 75 centimes per kg. in France, comes from Podor on the River Senegal, but is largely collected in regions which belong to Mauretania.

Maize is increasingly cultivated, especially in Upper Gambia and Futa; it ripens early, and so provides abundant food for the natives before the millet harvest. If cut while green it constitutes an excellent forage.

Millet is the most important of the cereals, and forms the chief food of the natives. Two kinds are grown, the large millet (*Andropogon sorghum*) and the small millet (*Pennisetum spicatum*). The large millet does best in wet regions, and is extensively grown in the river valleys. The small millet, however, which requires drier ground, is more widely cultivated. The districts of Senegal producing the largest quantities of millet are Futa Toro and Bundu. In Cayor, Salum, and Niani-Uli the natives, absorbed in the cultivation of the ground-nut, grow barely enough millet for their own needs, and the price in these parts often reaches 20 or even 25 centimes the kg., while in Bundu it

varies from 7 to 10 centimes. On account of the liability of millet to disease, and the crudeness of the agricultural methods of the natives, local failures of the harvest are frequent. There is consequently a lively internal trade in millet, and prices vary greatly from district to district. Millet serves a number of purposes. Though valued chiefly as human food, it is also used for feeding live stock. The stalks make good forage, and are employed in the construction of huts and palisades. When burnt they yield potassium salts, which the natives use in the manufacture of a black soap. The natives also obtain a red dye from the plant, and some of the fetishist tribes make from it an alcoholic drink. It is thought, indeed, that if the cultivation of millet extends, it may become possible to distil locally enough spirit to satisfy the native demand.

Palm products are exported in small quantities from Kasamanse. Since the rubber trade began to decay the energies of the natives have been turned to the collection of palm products, and as the trees are abundant, it is possible that the export may become important.

There are a few small coconut palm plantations in the Island of Sor, at the mouth of the Senegal, and also at several points along the coast. The trees flourish, but are not sufficiently numerous to provide copra for export. The plantations are, however, being gradually extended.

Rice grows wild in Uli and Salum, and is cultivated with great care in Kasamanse, where there are extensive rice-swamps in the neighbourhood of Ziginchor. This crop could with advantage be grown on the lands which border the Senegal, and in the hollow flooded by Lake Guier.

Rubber is obtained from the rubber vine, *Landolphia heudelotii*, which is abundant in Kasamanse. The export, however, has lately decreased, owing chiefly to the competition of plantation rubber from other regions,

Sesame is cultivated in most of the villages of Upper Gambia and Niani-Uli. It yields an oil similar to that of the ground-nut, but finer, and it has a commercial value of at least one-third more. It is sometimes grown between rows of maize or cotton. Its average yield under native cultivation is about 1,000 to 1,500 kg. per hectare. The crop is grown only in small quantities, and there is no export.

Shea butter is obtained from the shea tree, which is found in the south of the colony, where it is most abundant in the districts of Dentilia and Niocolo (Upper Gambia). The economic value of the tree is discussed in *Upper Senegal and Niger*, No. 107 of this series.

(ii) *Live-stock and Animal Products*.—*Cattle* are reared throughout the colony, especially amongst the Peuls, the Tukulors, and the Serers. There are two principal breeds: one horned and large, yielding little milk, but easy to rear and valuable as beasts of burden; the other hornless and small, but well-proportioned and strong, and much used for agricultural work and transport. *Sheep* and *goats* are of no great importance; the former have no wool, and the latter give little milk. Owing to the prevalence of Mohammedanism, pigs are comparatively rare.

Camels are numerous in Senegal during the dry season. They almost all belong to the Moors, who send them to the north of the river during the wet season, as more than three-quarters of them die if they are left in Senegal. Those that are acclimatised are worth from 500 to 600 francs, while others are worth only from 250 to 300 francs.

Horses are found throughout Senegal, except in Kasamanse and Upper Gambia, where the climate is unfavourable for them. *Donkeys* are numerous. *Fowls* and *ducks* exist in large numbers.

Ivory used to be exported in considerable quantities, but the export is now insignificant. The elephant is becoming rare, but is still found in Kasamanse and other southern regions.

Wax comes chiefly from Kasamanse. Bees are abundant in many districts, but the natives often make no use of the wax. Formerly there was a fairly large trade in wax in Senegal, and it will probably be revived as the penetration of the country by the French proceeds.

(b) *Methods of Cultivation*

Agriculture is almost entirely in the hands of the natives. Their methods of cultivation are rudimentary and their tools primitive. The ground is cleared of grass and shrubs, and these are burnt and the ashes strewn over the fields; no other fertiliser is employed, the natives being quite ignorant of the use of manure. The ground is then roughly broken up to a depth rarely exceeding 4 in. by means of a short-handled implement resembling a hoe. In parts of the country where the soil is largely clay and tends to be impermeable, the cultivation is a little more thorough, and furrows are made to drain off the water.

In most districts the crops, with the exception of corn, are grown during the wet season, with an interval of only four or five months between the sowing and the harvest. In the flooded lands, however, the crops are planted after the water has gone down, and are cultivated during the dry season, the water which has been absorbed by the soil being sufficient for them. The natives practise a rudimentary rotation of crops, but, owing to inefficient tillage, the ground is very quickly exhausted. As soon as this happens, the native moves on and clears fresh land.

The native is very improvident. Immediately after the harvest he often disposes of the greater part of the crop, sometimes not even keeping back seed for the next year; consequently, he is frequently obliged to buy grain when it has increased greatly in price. Famine, however, is comparatively rare, and will doubtless cease to cause any apprehension as the means of communication improve.

In all estimates and prophecies as to the future production of the country, the smallness of the population and the mentality of the native must be taken into account. Agricultural work can be carried on only by the natives, and progress can be made only as the native is educated in the use of new methods and implements. The Agricultural Service has organized experimental stations and agricultural schools throughout the country. Seeds and plants are distributed to the natives, instruction in cultivation is given, and experiments are made in order to ascertain which crops and which varieties can be most successfully grown.

Irrigation is not practised by the natives, nor, up to the present, by the French. Various schemes, however, are under consideration. Numerous wells have been dug by the Administration throughout the country.

(c) *Forestry*

In Senegal the diminution of the forest land has been more rapid than in other parts of French West Africa. The old forest areas in the valley of the Senegal river, and even in some of the less accessible regions, have completely disappeared. This is due to several causes--the frequent clearing of fresh ground by the natives, their reckless exploitation of the woods, the damage done by the herds, and the numerous fires. The destruction is producing an increasing dryness of the climate and a steady encroachment of the desert. Various legislative measures have been enacted with a view to checking the devastation. Thus no one may exploit any 'forest without official authorization; clearings are forbidden on slopes of an angle of 30° or more; in forests where there are valuable trees, for every one that is cut the exploiter must plant at least two of the same or an equally valuable variety; the felling of trees under a certain size is forbidden. Forest reserves have, moreover, been created throughout the country.

(d) Land Tenure

Under the regulations laid down by the French in all their West African territories, land vacant and without an owner belongs to the State, and lands forming the collective property of the natives or held by the native chiefs as representatives of the native communities cannot be ceded to private persons either by sale or on lease, except with the approval of the Lieutenant-Governor in the Council of Administration. In the eyes of the natives the land belongs to the tribe; a single person or a family can acquire a right to the products of the land, both wild and cultivated, but not to the land itself. This usufruct can, under certain circumstances, be ceded by sale or inheritance; but the proprietary right can be transferred only in a few carefully defined and rare contingencies, for alienation is quite against the spirit of the native tradition.

Grants of land to the extent of 200 hectares can be made to colonists by the Lieutenant-Governor sitting in the Council of Administration. Grants of between 200 and 2,000 hectares are made by the Governor-General on the recommendation of the Lieutenant-Governor after consultation with the Council of Administration, while larger grants require a decree made on the report of the Minister for the Colonies acting on the recommendation of the Governor-General and after consultation with the Commission for Colonial Concessions. On principle the first concession to a company or individual never exceeds 200 hectares, and is made on condition that the land is developed within a fixed time. The grant of further concessions depends on the fulfilment of this obligation.

(3) FISHERIES

Fish is very abundant along the coast, but the trade in it is small and local. The native fishermen live chiefly at St. Louis, Rufisque, and Dakar; they furnish these markets with fresh fish, and send sun-dried fish to the stations on the railways. The rivers are full of fish.

(4) MINERALS

Limestone containing phosphates occurs at Cape Verde and about 40 miles south of Rufisque. The richest bed of phosphates, over 8 ft. thick, is at Dielor; it has not yet been worked. Limestone for building is quarried at Rufisque and other places.

Salt is obtained by the evaporation of sea-water at Gandiole and Dagana, where the works yield a considerable revenue. Works might be established in the neighbourhood of St. Louis and at many places along the coast from St. Louis to Salum.

(5) MANUFACTURES

The native manufactures are primitive, and their market is entirely local. The principal industries are weaving, dyeing, tanning, smelting, and the manufacture of shoes, pottery, jewels, and bricks. The native weavers produce a durable cloth, capable of competing successfully with imported goods.

Apart from the public services, there are very few industrial undertakings under European direction. There is a glass factory in the town of St. Louis and brickyards in its vicinity. A cold storage company which is established at Lindiane near Kaolak expects to be able to treat from 18,000 to 20,000 head of cattle annually, and will, in addition, take up canning and preserving. The establishment of this company and the similar one in Upper Senegal and Niger should give a considerable impetus to the cattle-rearing industry, which has hitherto been hampered by the difficulty of exporting live-stock.

(C) COMMERCE

(1) DOMESTIC

(a) *Principal Branches of Trade*

There is a considerable domestic trade, mainly in cereals and cotton goods. The Moors and the nomad

tribes generally, whose country does not permit of cultivation, exchange their pastoral products for the cereals grown in the agricultural parts of the colony. Moreover, large areas along the railways are almost entirely devoted to the cultivation of the ground-nut, and the inhabitants are obliged to import grain from other districts.

It is impossible to obtain any accurate figures illustrating the extent of this trade, as the innumerable small markets throughout the country cannot be controlled and superintended. The domestic commerce of the colony appears, however, to be consistently on the increase. It is to a large extent conducted by the native pedlars or *diulas*.

(b) Towns¹

St. Louis is the chief town of Senegal and the seat of the Administration of the colony.

Dakar is the seat of the Government of French West Africa and an important port. The town is of recent construction and is growing rapidly. It has well-paved streets, electric lighting, and telephone and water systems.

Rufisque is an important centre of the ground-nut trade. A system of tramways connects the chief business houses with the station and wharves.

Goree, the oldest European settlement on the coast, was formerly much frequented by traders because of its safe position on an island; it is now, however, quite insignificant.

Other centres of importance in Senegal are *Nianing* and *Joal*, on the coast between *Rufisque* and *Salum*; *Thies*, *Tivawane*, *Mekhi*, and *Luga*, on the *St. Louis* railway; *Dagana*, *Podor*, *Matam*, and *Bakel*, on the *River Senegal*; *Fundiun*, *Kaolak*, and *Fatik*, in *Sine-Salum*; and *Ziginchor*, in *Kasamanse*.

¹ See also above, under *Ports*, p. 19.

(c) Organizations to promote Trade and Commerce

There are Chambers of Commerce at Dakar, St. Louis, Rufisque, Kaolak, and Ziginchor.

(d) Foreign Interests

There is a preferential tariff in favour of French goods. The British merchant is, therefore, considerably handicapped; but, in spite of every effort made by the French authorities to encourage the goods of their own nation, and in spite of the introduction of a new tariff on cottons, British cotton goods are much more popular with the natives than any others. Of the imports of cotton goods in 1913, exclusive of the so-called guinea cloth, 71 per cent. came from the United Kingdom.

(2) FOREIGN*(a) Exports and Imports*

In 1913 the exports of Senegal were valued at 72,937,825 francs (£2,917,513), the imports at 88,070,795 francs (£3,522,831). These figures were higher than any previously reached by the foreign trade of the colony, which had steadily increased since 1904, the slight fall in the returns for 1911 and 1912 being largely due to new methods of compiling the statistics, greater care being thenceforth taken to discriminate between the genuine foreign trade of the colony and the transit trade to and from Upper Senegal and Niger.

The export trade of Senegal is mainly dependent on the ground-nut harvest. In 1913, 229,961 metric tons of ground-nuts, valued at 57,283,621 francs (£2,291,345) were exported. Their principal destination was France, but considerable quantities went also to Holland and Germany. Other exports were insignificant in comparison, the chief being gum, hides, and

palm kernels. Germany used to take almost the whole of the palm kernels, while the greater part of the hides went to the United Kingdom, which, however, took only a small proportion of Senegalese goods as a whole.

It is interesting to note that imports for the public services, which in 1911 were valued at 9,000,000 francs and in 1912 at 8,000,000, fell, in 1913, to a value of 5,000,000. Thus the striking growth of the import trade during the last-named year was due solely to commercial transactions. The most certain indication of the prosperity of the country was the remarkable increase in the import of cotton materials, which have always formed the principal branch of trade in Senegal. Next to cotton goods in value were sugar, kola nuts, rice, and wines and spirits, but these were imported in relatively small quantities.

France naturally heads the list of countries of origin, and in 1913 she supplied Senegal with goods of a value of 41,801,235 francs (£1,672,049). The contribution of the United Kingdom was also considerable, being valued at 24,135,758 francs (£965,430), accounted for mainly by cotton goods. No other country furnished as much as 5,000,000 francs' worth of goods.

Detailed statistics of the foreign trade of Senegal are given in the Appendix, Tables II-VI.

During the first seven months of 1914 trade in Senegal was very prosperous. It suffered a sudden check at the outbreak of war, although the closing of the German markets did not affect trade to so great an extent as in the case of some of the other French colonies. That the export figures for 1914 surpassed those for 1913 was due entirely to the splendid ground-nut harvest; there was a decrease in the export of all other products.

(b) *Customs and Tariffs*

There is one tariff for all the colonies forming French West Africa, with the exception of the Ivory Coast and Dahomey. There is a general *ad valorem*

duty of 5 per cent. on imports of French origin, and of 12 per cent. on those from elsewhere. Certain goods are, however, exempt, the chief being cattle (with a few exceptions), meat, fish, certain fruits, vegetables, and agricultural machinery. Certain other articles are subject to special duties, the most important of which are shown in the following table:—

Products.	Unit of Tax.	Amount of Tax.	
		French goods.	Foreign goods.
Alcohol and wines with more than 16 per cent. of alcohol }	hl.	215·00 fr.	255·00 fr.
Arms, etc.	<i>ad val.</i>	15 per cent.	22 per cent.
Guinea cloth	<i>ad val.</i>	5 per cent.	12 per cent.
Gunpowder and Saltpetre ..	100 kg.	50·00 fr.	70·00 fr.
Kola nuts	100 kg.	—	75·00 fr.
Palm oil, etc.	<i>ad val.</i>	5 per cent.	6 per cent.
Salt	100 kg.	1·50 fr.	2·00 fr.
Spirits—			
Over 25 parts alcohol ..	hl.	120·00 fr.	150·00 fr.
25 parts and under ..	hl.	70·00 fr.	90·00 fr.
Sugar	100 kg.	5·00 fr.	10·50 fr.
Tobacco—			
Leaf	100 kg.	125·00 fr.	125·00 fr.
Cigars	100 kg.	400·00 fr.	540·00 fr.
Cigarettes	100 kg.	300·00 fr.	400·00 fr.
Other	100 kg.	200·00 fr.	270·00 fr.

These charges are modified in certain parts of the colonies. Thus in Senegal the two rates for guinea cloth are respectively ·025 fr. and ·06 fr. per metre. Several of the duties specified above are reduced in favour of goods entering Kasamanse.

There is an *ad valorem* export duty of 7 per cent. on rubber.

On entry into France, goods imported from the colonies of French West Africa pay, with a few exceptions, the duties established in the minimum

tariff. The exceptions in the case of Senegal are palm oil, timber, and an annually determined quantity of cattle, sheep, and meat. These goods enter free.

(D) FINANCE

(1) *Public Finance*

In 1904 a General Budget was established for the whole of French West Africa, and its relation to the revenue and expenditure of the several colonies was defined. To the General Budget are attached eight other budgets, among them those of the Kayes—Niger and Thies—Kayes railways, and the port of Dakar.

The chief expenses with which the General Budget is concerned are the charges on the debt and public works. The chief source of income within its purview is the tariff.

Of the revenues and disbursements which are outside the scope of the General Budget, some concern only the communes, but the majority are controlled by the Governments of the individual colonies. The most important of the revenues falling under this head are the poll-tax and the licence duties.

The poll-tax in Senegal is chargeable upon all natives above the age of 12 years, with the exception of a few specified classes, among which are the troops and the inhabitants of the communes. In the Protectorate the amount of the tax varies from 3 to 5 francs, according to the district, and in the territory under direct administration it is fixed at 4 francs. It is paid, as a rule, in cash, but in some parts where the currency is scarce it is paid in kind.

The finances of the territory under direct administration are kept distinct from those of the Protectorate. In 1913 the revenue and expenditure for the territory under direct administration were 2,502,600 francs (£100,104) and 2,366,886 francs (£94,675) respectively, and for the Protectorate 6,622,031 francs (£264,881) and 5,892,326 francs (£235,693) respec-

tively. The following tables show the chief features of the revenue and expenditure in that year:—

REVENUE

	Territory under Direct Administration.	Protectorate.
Direct Taxation—	Francs.	Francs.
Poll tax	157,027	5,138,097·20
Patents and licences	545,177·95	193,945·25
Other direct taxes	100,593·28	30,042·64
Indirect Taxation	201,488·73	..
Posts and telegraphs	38,471·60	592,077·44
Domain lands	33,038·35	85,250·12
Receipts provided by former Budget	43,725·01	116,075·48
Subsidy from General Budget ..	739,000	142,000
Other receipts	644,078·37	324,543·73
Total ..	2,502,600·29	6,622,031·86

EXPENDITURE

	Territory under Direct Administration.	Protectorate.
	Francs.	Francs.
Central Administration	530,750·93
Local Administration of Circles	998,803·92
Treasury and collection of taxes ..	104,340·61	374,158·04
Justice	29,743·20	44,643·31
Education	99,735·27	230,822·10
Police and prisons	164,769·07	461,293·80
Posts and telegraphs	817,463·72
Wireless telegraphy	49,385·98
Sanitary service and poor relief ..	310,776·38	392,500·44
Public works	430,596·94	1,061,053·99
Travelling and transport expenses ..	42,894·65	431,765·41
Expenses charged from former Budgets	258,934·82	..
Water supply	470,973·17	..
Other expenses	454,122·06	499,685·21
Total ..	2,366,886·17	5,892,326·85

A Reserve Fund has been formed for both the territory under direct administration and the Protectorate; for the former the minimum was fixed at 400,000 francs, for the latter at 600,000. On May 31, 1914, the balance in hand was 1,363,411 francs for the territory under direct administration and 2,644,419 for the Protectorate.

(2) *Currency*

The money in circulation is French gold and silver, the silver five-franc piece being much used. The natives in their small daily transactions continue to use cowries, of which between 3,000 and 12,000, according to the district and the time of year, make up five francs. The rate of exchange is very high at the time when the taxes are collected.

(3) *Banking*

The Banque de l'Afrique Occidentale undertakes all forms of banking operations in French West Africa for France and also for other countries. It was founded in 1901, with a capital of 1,500,000 francs allotted in shares of 500 francs each. This capital was later raised to 5,895,000 francs, divided into 11,790 shares, of which, in 1915, 70 were entirely paid up, and the remainder paid up on 175 francs only. The offices of the bank are at Paris; there is a branch at St. Louis, and agencies at Rufisque and Dakar. The bank issues notes of several denominations, which, however, are current only in the district of the agencies at which they are payable.

(E) GENERAL REMARKS

On the outbreak of war the situation of Senegal was very satisfactory. The increase in prosperity during the previous ten years had been rapid and continuous. Although the export of some of the more valuable products, such as rubber, ivory, and gum, had decreased

considerably, the development of other branches of trade had more than compensated for the loss, and the exploitation of numerous products was beginning. Trade has necessarily suffered since the outbreak of hostilities, but the general opinion appears to be that the end of the war will immediately be followed by a renewal of the former steady advance. These hopes of prosperity are based on the fact that the exports consist of raw products which are in general demand, and derive further justification from the circumstance that labour has not been materially disturbed by the war.

APPENDIX

EXTRACTS FROM TREATIES, ETC.

I

CONVENTION BETWEEN FRANCE AND PORTUGAL, RELATIVE TO THE DELIMITATION OF THEIR RESPECTIVE POSSESSIONS IN WEST AFRICA. PARIS, MAY 12, 1886.

Art. I.—In Guinea, the frontier which shall separate the Portuguese from the French possessions, will follow, in accordance with the tracing upon Map I, which is annexed to the present Convention:—

In the north, a line which, starting from Cape Roxo, will keep, as far as the nature of the ground will permit, at an equal distance from the Rivers Cassamance (Casamansa) and San Domingo de Cacheu (São Domingos de Cacheu) to the point of intersection of $17^{\circ} 30'$ longitude west of Paris with the parallel $12^{\circ} 40'$ of north latitude; between this point and 16° of longitude west of Paris, the frontier shall be merged in the parallel $12^{\circ} 40'$ of north latitude:—

In the east, the frontier will follow the meridian of 16° west from the $12^{\circ} 40'$ parallel of north latitude to the $11^{\circ} 40'$ parallel north latitude:—

* * * * *

Portugal will possess all the islands included between the meridian of Cape Roxo, the coast, and the southern boundary formed by a line following the thalweg of the River Cajet, and afterwards turning towards the south-west across the Passe des Pilots, where it reaches $10^{\circ} 40'$ north latitude, and follows it as far as the meridian of Cape Roxo.

II

ARRANGEMENT CONCERNING THE DELIMITATION OF
THE ENGLISH AND FRENCH POSSESSIONS ON THE
WEST COAST OF AFRICA. SIGNED AT PARIS.
AUGUST 10, 1889.

Art. I.—In Senegambia, the frontier line between the English and French possessions shall be established as follows:—

1. To the north of the Gambia (right bank) the line shall start from Jinnak Creek and follow the parallel which, traversing the coast at this point (about $13^{\circ} 36'$ north), intersects the Gambia at the great bend it makes towards the north opposite a small island situated at the entrance of Sarimi Creek in the country of Niamena.

From this point the frontier line shall follow the right bank as far as Yarbutenda, at a distance of 10 kilom. from the river.

2. To the south (left bank) the line, starting from the mouth of the San Pedro, shall follow the left bank as far as $13^{\circ} 10'$ of north latitude. The frontier shall thence follow the parallel which, starting from this point, goes as far as Sandeng (end of the Vintang Creek, English map).

The line shall then trend upwards in the direction of the Gambia, following the meridian which passes through Sandeng to a distance of 10 kilom. from the river.

The frontier shall then follow the left bank of the river at the same distance of 10 kilom. as far as, and including, Yarbutenda.

III

CONVENTION BETWEEN GREAT BRITAIN AND FRANCE,
RESPECTING NEWFOUNDLAND, AND WEST AND
CENTRAL AFRICA. SIGNED AT LONDON, APRIL 8,
1904.

Art. V.—The present frontier between Senegambia and the English Colony of the Gambia shall be modified so as to give to France Yarbutenda and the lands and landing-places belonging to that locality.

In the event of the river not being open to maritime navigation up to that point, access shall be assured to the French Government at a point lower down on the River Gambia, which shall be recognized by mutual agreement as being accessible to merchant ships engaged in maritime navigation.

The conditions which shall govern transit on the River Gambia and its tributaries, as well as the method of access to the point that may be reserved to France in accordance with the preceding

paragraph, shall form the subject of future agreement between the two Governments.

In any case, it is understood that these conditions shall be at least as favourable as those of the system instituted by application of the General Act of the African Conference of February 26, 1885, and of the Anglo-French Convention of June 14, 1898, to the English portion of the basin of the Niger.

STATISTICS

TABLE I—RETURN OF SHIPPING AT THE PORTS OF
SENEGAL, 1913

VESSELS ENTERED

	Ships.		Merchandise Landed.	
	Number.	Tonnage.	Tons.	Value in Francs.
Austrian	4	13,165
Belgian	36	164,034
British	200	266,812	123,016	27,884,039
Danish	28	25,826	21,924	1,411,108
Dutch	16	1,760
French	450	1,077,782	113,591	62,011,983
German	97	176,454	20,739	7,030,690
Greek	21	33,361	10,108	3,262,118
Italian	233	762,380	125,132	4,665,707
Norwegian	110	75,534	32,560	5,515,611
Portuguese	30	4,449	2,494	85,144
Spanish	15	20,584	3,019	105,350
Swedish	28	26,537	19,533	2,913,218
Others	5	4,061	2,484	86,658
Total	1,273	2,652,739	474,600	114,971,626

VESSELS CLEARED

	Ships.		Merchandise Shipped.	
	Number.	Tonnage.	Tons.	Value in Francs.
Austrian	4	13,165	285	9,690
Belgian	36	164,034	16,568	574,386
British	210	377,577	40,026	12,035,457
Danish	33	31,143	22,528	5,811,785
Dutch	17	2,664	2,447	400,818
French	472	1,091,937	186,420	33,518,154
German	98	177,516	17,458	4,180,213
Greek	21	34,103	10,206	3,734,049
Italian	232	760,878	130,236	6,453,571
Norwegian	104	91,520	61,857	15,298,275
Portuguese	28	4,303	733	136,797
Spanish	15	20,584	1,493	51,574
Swedish	37	35,014	28,278	7,027,689
Others	4	3,027	235	16,731
Total	1,311	2,807,465	518,770	89,249,189

TABLE II.—IMPORTS AND EXPORTS, 1904-1914

			Imports.	Exports.	Total.
			Francs.	Francs.	Francs.
1904..	49,846,739	29,920,893	79,767,632
1905..	53,314,778	24,564,355	77,879,133
1906..	54,166,000	35,719,000	89,885,000
1907..	54,696,406	43,858,850	98,555,256
1908..	69,376,445	45,957,694	115,334,139
1909..	67,912,239	59,164,917	127,077,156
1910..	82,607,568	64,254,179	146,861,747
1911..	74,743,558	53,382,434	128,125,992
1912..	67,859,907	56,019,804	123,879,711
1913..	88,070,795	72,937,825	161,008,620
1914..	80,068,656	80,447,385	160,516,041

TABLE III.—VALUE OF EXPORTS, 1910, 1912, 1913

	1910.	1912.	1913.
	Francs.	Francs.	Francs.
Cattle	44,375	264,425	298,650
Gold.	166,785	8,700	36,000
Ground-nuts	49,770,741	41,162,966	57,283,621
Gum	1,331,601	2,315,494	2,130,142
Hides	356,542	565,732	802,931
Ivory	111,482	2,560	736
Palm kernels	359,903	705,514	760,411
Rubber	5,060,046	1,077,111	492,792
Wax	129,452	150,888	157,548
Miscellaneous	6,923,252	9,766,414	10,974,994
Total	64,254,179	56,019,804	72,937,825

TABLE IV.—COUNTRIES OF DESTINATION OF EXPORTS,
1910, 1912, 1913

	1910.	1912.	1913.
	Francs.	Francs.	Francs.
Belgium	650,169	727,191	700,662
British Colonies	457,767	323,289	962,068
Denmark	—	—	607,608
France	42,053,281	32,534,443	44,105,625
French Colonies	7,351	2,200	14,718
Germany	3,917,178	5,119,257	7,155,050
Holland	7,919,436	5,623,574	6,875,246
Portugal	440,400	715,820	314,480
Portuguese Colonies	66,282	101,270	142,701
Spanish Colonies	—	102,341	170,494
United Kingdom	1,093,525	976,699	1,033,982
Other countries	1,025,618	437,405	475,481
Total	57,631,007	46,663,489	62,558,115
Re-exports (destination not stated)	6,623,172	9,356,315	10,379,710
Grand Total	64,254,179	56,019,804	72,937,825

TABLE V.—VALUE OF IMPORTS, 1910, 1912, 1913

	1910.	1912.	1913.
	Francs.	Francs.	Francs.
Biscuits	892,037	1,078,422	1,221,844
Building materials (other than wood)	1,501,501	1,228,313	1,463,994
Clothing	1,178,561	1,340,736	1,401,669
Cotton goods (other than guinea cloth)	15,558,214	9,539,723	18,874,372
Cotton thread	775,125	727,520	702,438
Firearms	122,689	59,434	68,942
Flour	1,287,669	1,251,615	1,311,348
Guinea cloth	5,205,998	2,796,231	2,665,148
Kola nuts	3,759,549	3,384,892	4,689,364
Machinery	2,710,854	1,231,880	2,053,707
Oils (vegetable)	1,606,139	1,586,385	1,835,206
Rice	5,549,006	4,952,036	4,626,616
Silver	3,105,445	735,038	2,173,032
Soap (other than perfumery) ..	633,182	596,806	630,834
Sugar	2,685,684	3,035,022	5,420,267
Tobacco	1,485,017	1,583,269	1,958,613
Wines, spirits, etc.	4,490,676	3,452,062	4,621,837
Miscellaneous	30,060,272	29,280,523	32,351,564
Total	82,607,568	67,859,907	88,070,795

TABLE VI.—COUNTRIES OF ORIGIN OF IMPORTS,
1910, 1912, 1913

	1910.	1912.	1913.
	Francs.	Francs.	Francs.
French goods—			
France	43,773,677	33,731,071	41,801,235
French Colonies	2,303,009	1,003,250	793,272
Foreign goods—			
Austria-Hungary	197,996	198,397	57,533
Belgium	646,849	557,493	784,804
France	3,396,850	2,795,317	1,203,561
Germany	2,723,108	2,598,809	1,997,891
Holland	1,673,480	1,358,334	3,038,905
Italy	1,540,954	656,328	—
Switzerland	7,130	19,746	55,046
United Kingdom	18,559,927	14,185,987	24,135,758
United States	1,323,239	5,171,050	4,973,009
Other countries	6,461,349	5,584,125	9,229,781
Total	82,607,568	67,859,907	88,070,795

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MAPS

The territory of Senegal is shown, but without detail, on the general War Office map of West Africa, G.S.G.S. 2434, scale 1: 6,336,000, 1903 (additions 1914, boundaries corrected 1919).

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I. GEOGRAPHY PHYSICAL AND POLITICAL

(1) POSITION AND FRONTIERS

THE colony of French Guinea is situated on the west coast of Africa between latitudes 8° and $12^{\circ} 30'$ north and longitudes 8° and $15^{\circ} 10'$ west, and marches on the north-west with Portuguese Guinea, on the north and north-east with Senegal and Upper Senegal and Niger, on the east with the Ivory Coast, and on the south with Liberia and the British colony of Sierra Leone. Its area is 90,000 square miles.

The boundary between French and Portuguese Guinea, which was fixed by the Convention of May 12, 1886, and delimited by a Commission in 1903, runs from the coast in a north-easterly direction, between the Rio Cassini and the Rio Grande on the north-west, and the Komponi, with its upper waters, the Kogon, on the south-east, to the point where the meridian 16° west of Paris (about $13^{\circ} 40'$ west of Greenwich) cuts the parallel of $11^{\circ} 40'$ north latitude, and thence in a generally northern direction, but with a bend to the west so as to leave Kade to France (see *Portuguese Guinea*, No. 118 of this series).

The internal frontiers towards Senegal and Upper Senegal and Niger are described in the Handbooks dealing with these colonies (Nos. 102 and 107).

Towards the Ivory Coast the administrative boundary leaves the Liberian frontier a little south of latitude 8° north, turns east, and then runs generally north following a sinuous line, marked partly by the courses of the Fereduguba and Gwala, as far as the administrative frontier of Upper Senegal and Niger.

The frontiers towards Sierra Leone, determined by the Agreement of January 21, 1895, and the Agreement of September 4, 1913, and towards Liberia, defined by the Act of Delimitation of January 13, 1911, are described under Sierra Leone and Liberia (Handbooks Nos. 92 and 130) respectively.

(2) SURFACE, COAST, AND RIVER SYSTEM

Surface

French Guinea may be divided into the following regions:—(1) the coastal lowlands, (2) the sandstone plateaux behind them, (3) the main Futa Jalon (Fouta-Djallon) massif, (4) the Western Sudan zone, and (5) the hill country of the south-east.

The *coastal region* is a flat strip of low-lying country, which is defined at varying distances inland by the sandstone hills that mark the edge of the plateaux leading up to Futa Jalon. These plateaux which extend as far as the upper Rio Nuñez, the Kogon, and the Tomine, are of moderate altitude, and are intersected by deep trenches, in which run winding rivers. The region is largely composed of arid plains of rock, which, during the rains, become marshy and covered with short grass.

The mountainous *massif of Futa Jalon* is a vast oval plateau, traversed from south to north by a series of elevations. It comprises the basins of the upper Konkure, the Baleyo (Bafing), the Dimma (Gambia), and numerous other rivers. The culminating point, near Diagisa, is under 5,000 ft. above sea level, while the mean level of the central parts is about 3,000 ft., and on the whole the Futa Jalon plateau is characterised by the predominance of rolling country with rounded hills.

The *region of the Western Sudan* comprised within French Guinea is composed of a succession of great plains or low plateaux, covered with scattered vegetation. The hills, which run from the south-eastern

end of Futa Jalon as far as the Ivory Coast, and the country on their inland side, are a little-known region. On the Sierra Leone frontier there appear to be a series of undulating plateaux (Kissi, Kuranko, and Sankaran districts). Further south the country is wilder, and in this part there appear to be some of the greatest elevations of the whole colony.

Coast

The coast is about 170 miles in length, exclusive of indentations. It is fringed with mangroves, and is in general low and either sandy or muddy, though in a few places there are rocky headlands, such as Cape Verga, and openings which penetrate deep inland. Off the coast are numerous reefs and islands, of which the chief are the Los Islands (Isles de Los, Islas de los Idolos), off Konakri. The only port of entry is Konakri, but there are other points on the coast, such as the entrance of the Rio Nuñez, which may be approached under favourable conditions by moderate-sized vessels.

River System

The most important rivers of West Africa have their sources within the boundaries of French Guinea. They may be grouped under four main hydrographic centres, which are, from north to south, the plateau of Labe, the plateau of Teliko, the region dominated by Mt. Tembi Kunda, and the region of Bela (Konyan mountains). Of the rivers rising in the two last-named districts, only those flowing northward concern French Guinea to any extent.

The chief rivers flowing from the plateaux of Labe and Teliko are: to the west, the Komba or Rio Grande (which flows through Portuguese Guinea) and the Konkure; to the north, the Gambia and the Bafing (a tributary of the Senegal); and to the east, the Tinkisso (a tributary of the Niger); while from Mt. Tembi Kunda and the Konyan mountains flow the

Niger and a number of its other affluents. Besides these, there are some important coast rivers, of which the chief are the Kogon (Cogon, Kogu) or Komponi (Compony), the Fatalla or Pongo, and the Great Skarsies (Scarcies), the last named forming part of the frontier with Sierra Leone.

In general, after leaving the mountains, these rivers spread out into broad channels, and in the case of the coastal rivers, the tide often makes its influence felt 20 to 30 miles inland. In the dry season some even of the quite large streams are reduced to strings of pools. As a result of these conditions the coastal rivers are of very little use for navigation, except for short distances from the mouth. The Niger and some of its tributaries are navigable for small boats (see p. 17).

(3) CLIMATE

There are two seasons—a wet, between May, and October, and a dry, between November and April.

The rainfall is heaviest on the coast, and decreases towards the interior. At Konakri, on the coast, as much as 240 to 276 ins. of rain have been registered in a year, but the average is about 190 ins. (4,830 mm.). At Labe, Ditin and Timbo on the Futa Jalon plateau, the averages are 61 ins. (1,560 mm.), 75 ins. (1,920 mm.), and 64 ins. (1,630 mm.), respectively. In the extreme north-west there are never more than 40 to 60 ins. (1,000 to 1,500 mm.) per annum, whilst at Kissidugu, in the south-east, there are 80 to 100 ins. (2,000 to 2,500 mm.).

The temperature decreases inland from the coast to the central plateau, and again increases towards the Sudan region. The mean annual range is not great. At Konakri the annual mean is 79° F. (26° C.), the hottest months being March to May, and the coldest August. At Labe, Ditin, and Timbo the annual means are 71° F., 75° F., 74° F. (22° C., 24° C., 23° C.) respectively, the hottest months March to May, and the coldest December. At Dingirai the

hottest months are March and April, when 100° to 104° F. (37° to 40° C.) has been registered. In the Kade region, in the north-west, the hottest season falls during the rains.

The prevailing winds in the west of the colony come from between north-west and south, in the east from between north and south-east. The *harmattan* blows from the east or north-east for short periods between December and April.

(4) SANITARY CONDITIONS

The health conditions of the colony are on the whole unfavourable both for Europeans and natives, and the greater part of the coastal region in particular is very unhealthy. The most prevalent ailments are malaria and dysentery, while in the regions where there are abrupt changes of temperature, pneumonia and bronchitis are common. Europeans who have spent too long a time in Guinea are liable to suffer from tropical anæmia, and are also subject to ulcers and a painful kind of eruption.

Among the diseases which affect the natives are tuberculosis, elephantiasis, goitre, leprosy, and small-pox, and there are a few cases of sleeping sickness.

(5) RACE AND LANGUAGE

The bulk of the population is composed of tribes that have arrived in the region in comparatively recent times, viz., the Fulas (or Fulbes); the Susus and Jalonkes, who are apparently very closely related; and the Malinkes. These tribes cover the whole of the centre of the colony and form about five-sixths of the total population. Around this nucleus are many other smaller groups, some related to them and others representing older elements of the population. The most numerous of these smaller groups is the Kissis of the south-east.

On the whole it would seem that Mande (Mandingo) blood now predominates. This is the case even among the Fulas (who by descent are not negroes, but thought to be Hamites), with the exception of the Fulas "of the bush," or Borores, who are still nomad herdsmen.

Linguistically, there are two chief groups, (i) the speakers of Fulani (Fulfulde) and (ii) the speakers of Mandingo dialects, of which the most important are the Susu in Lower Guinea and the Malinke and kindred dialects in the Nigerian region. The use of Susu appears to be extending among the coast tribes.

(6) POPULATION

Distribution

The population was estimated in 1916 at 1,808,893, which included 1,166 Europeans, and this gives a mean density of about 20 per square mile. A demographic map of 1909 shows the population to be densest in the southernmost part of the coastal region, and in the districts around Kissidugu and along the Liberian border. In these regions the density varies from about 19 per square mile (Boffa) to about 75 (Labe), and even 100 per square mile (Ditin). In the greater part of the country to the east and south-east of Futa Jalon, and in the north-west and the west, the density is only 7 to 11 persons per square mile.

Towns and Villages

The largest centres of population are Konakri, Kankan, Tuba, Kurusa, Boke, and Sigiri. There appear to be a number of villages which are important native commercial centres, such as Demokulima, where markets are held which attract large numbers of natives.

II. POLITICAL HISTORY

CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY

- 1860-70 Acquisition of possessions on coast by France.
1868-70 Suggested exchange of the Gambia for French rights on coast.
1875-76 Renewal of suggestion of exchange.
1881 Futa Jalon brought under French protectorate.
1882 French claim to Mellakore basin recognised by United Kingdom (June 28).
1885 French claim to Mellakore basin recognised by Germany (December 24).
1886 Definition of boundary with Portuguese Guinea (May 12).
1887 Futa Jalon finally reduced: French successes on the Niger secure hinterland of Senegal and Rivières du Sud (French Guinea).
1889 Extension of boundary with Sierra Leone (August 10).
1892 Definition of boundary with Liberia (December 8).
1895 Boundary with Sierra Leone again defined (January 21).
1904 French Guinea becomes part of the Government-General of French West Africa. New settlement of boundary with Sierra Leone (March 22/April 5): Iles de Los ceded to France.
1907 New settlement of boundary with Liberia (September 18).
1911 Readjustment of boundaries with Liberia and Sierra Leone.

(1) FORMATION OF THE COLONY

French possession of the coast of French Guinea was begun by a series of treaties concluded with the inhabitants from 1860 onwards, the territories thus acquired being formed into a possession under the title of Rivières du Sud. The presence of the French on the Mellakore (Mellicourie, Mellacorée) river to the north of the British settlement at Sierra Leone quickly caused uneasiness, and in 1868-69¹ proposals were made

¹ C. 264 or H.C. Paper No. 444 of 1870.

for the surrender of the Gambia by the British in exchange for French renunciation of all claims between the Dembia river and the Sierra Leone boundary. This project fell through, in part owing to the Franco-German War of 1870-71, but was revived in 1875-76, when the surrender of all French claims south of the Fatalla (Pongo) river was suggested.¹ It was then stated that the only possession actually held by France between the Iles de Los and Lagos was at Benty on the Mellakore river, where there was a French station with a detachment of French white troops. The failure of the suggested arrangement was followed, after 1880, by a great revival of French activity; the territory already claimed was effectively occupied, and in 1881 Futa Jalon was brought under control.

The altered position was recognized by Great Britain in the following year; and the Convention of June 28, 1882, which, though never ratified, was accepted by both Powers as a binding arrangement,² assigned to France the basin of the Mellakore, and to Great Britain that of the Skarsies, the latter Power undertaking not to exercise any rights over the territory between a line to be drawn between the rivers in question and the Rio Nuñez, the boundary claimed by Portuguese Guinea. The French position was further strengthened by the Franco-German Protocol of December 24, 1885, under which Germany renounced all claims to the territory between the Mellakore and Rio Nuñez. Portugal, by a Convention of May 12, 1886, consented to recognize the French protectorate over Futa Jalon, in return for a precise definition of the frontiers of Portuguese Guinea. Futa Jalon became fully dependent on France in 1888, and the successes of French arms on the Upper Senegal and Niger secured the hinterland of Senegal and the Rivières du Sud.

¹ Parliamentary Paper, C. 1409.

² C. 6701, p. 3.

(2) BOUNDARY AGREEMENTS

New arrangements becoming necessary with Great Britain, touching the prolongation of the boundary line agreed upon in 1882 and under Article II of the Arrangement of August 10, 1889, provision was accordingly made for the line to be extended to the intersection of latitude 10° north with longitude $10^{\circ} 40'$ west, giving the country of the Houbbous to France, and Soulimania and Falaba to the United Kingdom. A further agreement of June 26, 1891, provided that the boundary south of 10° north should run along the west of the heights on the left bank of the Niger to Tembi Kunda. By an exchange of Notes of December 2, 1891, and March 4, 1892, it was further agreed that the meridian $10^{\circ} 40'$ west longitude should form the boundary between the French Sudan and Sierra Leone up to the Anglo-Liberian frontier; and under the arrangement with Liberia of December 8, 1892, the frontier between the French possessions and Liberia was fixed at the parallel of Tembi Kunda to its intersection with that meridian.

The delimitation of the frontier with Sierra Leone proved difficult. By the Agreement of January 21, 1895 (completed by an exchange of Notes of June 14-16, 1898), it was defined up to the intersection of the watershed, separating the basin of the Niger from the basin of the rivers flowing to the Atlantic, with the parallel of Tembi Kunda; and an exchange of Notes of January 22/February 4, 1895, provided that, in accordance with the Agreement of 1891-92, the boundary from that place should be the parallel of Tembi Kunda to $10^{\circ} 40'$ west, and that meridian to the Anglo-Liberian boundary. This portion of the boundary was demarcated in 1900 and 1903, and accepted by an exchange of Notes of March 22/April 5, 1904: it was subsequently modified by Notes exchanged on July 6, 1911,¹ and finally fixed under the Agreement of September 4, 1913.² The *Iles de Los*, which by the

¹ Cd. 6101.² Cd. 7147.

Arrangement of 1882 had been left to Great Britain,¹ were ceded to France by the Convention of April 8, 1904.

The frontier between the French possessions in West Africa and Liberia rests upon the treaty arrangements of December 8, 1892; September 18, 1907; and January 13, 1911,² the last of which definitely fixes the boundary as laid down in the Agreement of 1907.

The internal history of the territory has been comparatively uneventful, the native tribes having accepted French control more easily than was the case on the Ivory Coast.

¹ In 1818 the sovereignty of the Iles de Los was acquired by Great Britain from the Chief of the Bago country.

² *State Papers*, cvii, 797-800.

III. SOCIAL AND POLITICAL CONDITIONS

(See *French West Africa*, No. 100 of this series,
pp. 3-14.)

By the Decree of October 18, 1904, French Guinea became part of the Government-General of French West Africa.

IV. ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

(A) MEANS OF COMMUNICATION

(1) INTERNAL

IN an undeveloped tropical country such as French Guinea economic conditions are to an exceptional extent dependent upon the character of the internal communications. In this important respect the colony has not been favoured by Nature. Navigable rivers are few; mountains, ravines, and torrents are numerous; and locomotion on land, obstructed by these surface impediments, is rendered doubly arduous by the luxuriance of tropical vegetation and the persistence of tropical rains. Moreover, many of the colony's products are of such bulk and weight as to make the cost of their transport in unfavourable conditions disproportionate to the prices realised by their sale; whilst the natives whose function it is to produce these commodities or prepare them for the market are deficient in energy and enterprise, lacking in grasp of commercial principles, and devoid of ambition for higher standards of living and comfort. It is with such conditions, markedly averse to economic development, that the French Government has had to contend in framing a policy with regard to internal communications.

(a) *Roads and Tracks*

The channels in which internal commerce was accustomed to flow while still unaffected by European influences were the caravan routes between the coast and the interior. These were mere tracks, upon which travelling was always impeded by natural obstacles,

and was frequently rendered troublesome or dangerous by the thievish propensities or aggressive hostility of tribes in the districts through which the routes passed. Further, in view of the difficulties of the journey and the necessity of replacing losses caused by sickness and accidents, the number of native porters engaged for a caravan had to be raised to a figure out of all economic relation to the value of the merchandise carried. The first aim of the French Government was therefore to enforce order and ensure the safety of the trade routes; its next object was to facilitate transport by the provision of roads; and it was further concerned to make sure that the road system was so designed as to divert to the commercial centres of the French colony traffic which had been apt to follow routes leading across the frontiers, to the consequent enrichment of neighbouring territories.

In 1891, when Dubréka was the leading commercial centre of the colony, a road was begun from that town to Timbo, the capital of the Futa Jalon region, to attract the traffic in rubber and other products of the interior. About this time, however, Konakri entered upon a growth which was soon to dwarf Dubreka. An extension of the Dubreka—Timbo road was therefore called for, to expedite the passage of caravans from the interior to the rising settlement. The coastal route proving very costly, it was decided to abandon it and to carry the road straight inland from Konakri. After the incorporation in Guinea of the Farana district and of the provinces detached from the French Sudan, this road became the great Niger route. About 400 miles in length, the system connects Konakri with the chief centres in the region of the Upper Niger and its affluents, the Tinkisso and Milo, and thus forms an important artery for the commerce of the colony. Though scarcely to be called a road in the European sense, it is greatly superior to the native tracks; and, equipped as it is with numerous caravanserais, it at once found favour with the natives, and quickly superseded the old caravan routes to the coast.

At various times in later years other projects of road construction on a less ambitious scale have been carried out, including the roads inland from Boffa, from Boke, and from the Konkure. At the outbreak of the late war the road programme in execution or in contemplation comprised a 30-mile road from Konakri to Dubreka, a 90-mile road from Mamu to Labe, and an 80-mile road from Dabola to Farana.

Costly to make, roads in Guinea are also costly to maintain. "In Africa," as one writer¹ has put it, "what with the tornadoes, the climate, the soil, the scarcity of materials, the inadequacy of the supervisory *personnel*, maintenance is difficult. The best roads, built at great cost, speedily degenerated into deeply rutted tracks, scarcely practicable even for porters. I have traversed the whole length of one of the finest of our colonial roads, that from Konakri to the Niger. It cost £80,000 to build, or about £250 a mile.² It is no longer practicable throughout for vehicles, or even for pack animals, and necessitates human portage, of which the inconveniences are obvious." Moreover, there are great stretches of the colony where miserable tracks, made and maintained by natives, are still the only channels of communication.

(b) *Rivers*

The rivers of the colony are fairly numerous, but are of comparatively little use as means of communication and of penetration. As the hills extend to within a short distance from the coast the rivers issuing from them have broken courses, and though the falls may some day serve to generate electric power for railways and forest exploitation, they will always prevent navigation beyond the littoral zone. Even little coasting craft cannot anywhere ascend to a greater distance

¹ G. Deherme, *L'Afrique Occidentale Française*.

² The author's estimate of the cost of construction is thought to be excessive, £50,000 appearing to be nearer the mark.

than 50 miles inland, and the facilities offered to ocean shipping are very scanty.

Of the rivers flowing into the sea along the Guinea coast the most important are the Komponi or Kogon, the Rio Nuñez, the Fatalla, the Konkure, the Dubreka, the Forecaria, and the Mellakore.

In the main entrance channel of the *Komponi* (Componi) river, known in its upper course as the Kogon (Kogu), navigation is dangerous, and the river is consequently little frequented, though it may be ascended for a good many miles. Above the first bend a rocky barrier crosses the stream, which here runs strongly in its confined and rock-strewn channel. Above this barrier the river narrows, but presents no special difficulties, and small vessels can reach the point, nearly 50 miles from the sea, where other rocky barriers preclude a further ascent.

On the banks of the *Rio Nuñez* are found several settlements, the chief of them being Victoria, 13 miles above the entrance, and Boke, which is situated a little above the head of navigation. If less dangerous than the entrance of the Komponi, the mouth of this river is not entirely safe, as a bank of muddy sand, uncovered in many places at ebb tide, stretches under shoal water well out to sea. It is said that the spits and sandbanks are exceptionally prone to shift, yielding to floods from within and to gales from without. Off Sand Island, at the entrance, there is an ample depth in the channel. Off Long Island depths of 23 ft. to 26 ft. are found, but, the channel being narrow and the stream running strongly, cautious navigation is necessary. Between this point and Victoria a bar of mud has to be crossed, with depths of from 10 ft. to 13 ft. over it at low tide. Above Victoria, where the once prosperous "factories" of Bel-Air, Roppas, and Wakaria are situated, the river diminishes in breadth, becoming rocky and rather shallow in places, and being eventually crossed by a bar which even at high water prevents the passage of any but light-draught vessels. At Victoria, which may be reached by ships of con-

siderable tonnage, there is anchorage in 16 ft. to 19 ft. of water over mud. Spring tides rise 17 ft., and neaps 11½ ft.

The *Fatalla* (Rio Pongo) enters the sea through an estuary which is broader but shallower than that of the Rio Nuñez. Dividing near its mouth into several channels, the river extends for a good many miles inland, but is not navigable for any great distance. Ships of 400 or 500 tons can reach the settlement of Boffa, which is on the northern bank of the principal channel, about 8 miles from the mouth, and may anchor there in 26 ft. of water over mud. Not far above the town the river opens out into a marshy basin, studded with mud islands, among which navigation is impracticable. Neap tides rise 9½ ft. in the entrance of the river; spring tides rise 12 ft. there and over 16 ft. at Boffa. During periods of flood the stream runs with considerable force. Though Boffa may be reached by ships of a fair size, it seems that the Rio Pongo is now frequented only by small coasting craft.

The *Konkure* (Rio Bramaya, Bouramaya, Rio Dembia) is the largest stream flowing into the sea along the Guinea coast. The name Konkure, it is said, signifies "bad river," and was bestowed on this river because of the numerous accidents which occur during every wet season on its torrential waters. At 10 miles from the sea the river divides into two arms, the northern arm being barred by shoals for all craft heavier than boats. A little way above the parting there is a rocky ridge over which vessels drawing 10 ft. may pass at half-tide, and thence ascend to the settlement at the foot of the Bumia falls. The falls bar further navigation, but above them the river appears to be navigable again for light-draught vessels.

The *Dubreka* river divides into two branches at a short distance from the sea, which it enters not far from the mouth of the Konkure. Whilst the northern arm, obstructed by banks and reefs which dry at low water, is not easy to navigate, the southern arm can be used at all states of the tide by vessels drawing

less than 10 ft.; and ships of 600 tons burden can reach the commercial station of Dubreka, which is above the point where the river divides. About 10 miles higher up (at the foot of a fall) lies Correra, the furthest point accessible to navigation. Once the most important commercial centre of the colony, Dubreka has now been eclipsed by Konakri, and is little visited except by coasting craft.

The navigable portion of the *Forecaria* is short for ships approaching from the sea, as a ridge of rocks runs almost right across the river not far from the mouth; but above this bar there is a good stretch of navigable water, accessible by way of the Mellakore and Tanna rivers. In the mouth of the *Mellakore* the depths are subject to change, but it seems that a vessel of 15 ft. draught may safely enter at three-quarter flood, and vessels of less than 10 ft. draught may ascend for 20 miles. At Benty, near the entrance, there is a wharf. The lesser streams flowing into the sea on the coast-line of the colony are practicable for small coasting craft and trading canoes. The upper waters of the *Great Skarsies*, which reaches the sea through British territory, are partly within the borders of French Guinea, but they are there torrential, and of little use for navigation.

On the other side of the Futa Jalon Hills rise other rivers, which flow towards the sea by devious courses. These include the Komba, or Rio Grande, the Gambia, the Bafing, the Niger, and their affluents. They are all subject to great seasonal fluctuations, and are torrential in character during the rainy months; their higher courses, which alone fall within French Guinea, are thus of small economic value to the colony. The *Niger* is an unimposing stream while among the hills; after entering the plains it passes Farana, an important trade centre and meeting-place of routes from all directions; but its course is broken by a series of rapids, and it is only at Kurusa, a post on the railway, that it becomes navigable for small craft at certain seasons of the year. Some wharf

accommodation has been provided here as part of the railway scheme. The *Tinkisso* has falls in its upper reaches, and is very tortuous lower down; but from Toumania to its junction with the Niger near Sigiri it is navigable nearly all the year, and has thus an appreciable economic value. Much the same may be said of another affluent, the *Milo*. The *Faleme*, a tributary of the Senegal, is reduced to a tiny stream in times of drought, but when in flood it will carry craft of about 2 ft. draught. The *Gambia* is not navigable within the limits of French Guinea.

(c) Railways

The one railway which the colony possesses runs from Konakri to the basin of the Niger. The line is operated by the State, the cost of construction having been met by loans. Work on the line was begun in 1900; the first section, Konakri—Kindia, 95 miles long, was completed in June 1904; the extension to Mamu, 88 miles long, was opened in August 1908; a third section, 184 miles in length, reaching to Kurusa on the Niger, was available for traffic in January 1911; and the last section hitherto completed, from Kurusa to Kankan on the Milo, a distance of 51 miles, was finished in August 1914. At that time plans were approved, credits allocated, and the route surveyed for an extension from Kankan to Bela; but work was suspended in consequence of the outbreak of war, the intention being to resume it as soon as circumstances should permit. The length of railway in operation at the present time is thus rather more than 400 miles. The line has a gauge of one metre, and the rolling-stock consisted at the end of 1913 of 42 locomotives, 30 passenger coaches, and about 500 goods trucks and waggons. At that time two trains ran daily, one each way, between Konakri and Kurusa, the journey taking two days, including a halt for the night at Mamu. During

the period 1907-13 the receipts averaged over £100,000 a year, and considerably exceeded the working expenditure. The bulk of the revenue is derived from the carriage of goods.

The railway scheme, as thus executed, has not escaped criticism, which has been directed chiefly against the route selected. It has been alleged that the line was carried through a comparatively deserted and very difficult country, where the cost of construction was excessive, for the purpose of reaching the Niger basin, the commerce of which has at its disposal other railways, as well as the navigable channel of the river itself. It is replied that the line was not built to secure immediate profits or to serve local requirements; it was conceived as a line of penetration, designed to populate empty districts and to develop poor ones—for example, by stimulating stock-raising in the Futa region and by facilitating forest exploitation. The benefits which it is said to confer are described in official reports as being partly strategic, partly administrative, and partly commercial. The railway permits of the speedy transfer of troops to any centre of disaffection; officials need no longer make long journeys by hammock in broiling sun or pouring rain; and there is no longer any need to impress large bodies of men to carry provisions and supplies to distant posts. From the point of view of commerce the line throws open to European penetration rich and hitherto inaccessible regions; it promotes the formation of new commercial centres; it enables European merchandise to be carried up the country quickly, in good condition, and at a cost which does not place it beyond the purchasing power of the native; it provides an outlet, not only for such products of the interior as combine high value with small bulk, but also for the heavier and less costly articles which could not otherwise be marketed profitably; cattle no longer die on the road or lose half their value by emaciation and sickness; and the labour supply is no longer depleted by the incessant recruiting of porters. Finally, say

the apologists, the line may be justified on this one ground alone, that ultimately, but for its existence, the Sierra Leone Railway would have captured nearly the whole trade of Upper Guinea and the Western Sudan.

It is unquestionably true that the special conditions of French Guinea are such that economic progress would not be possible without the stimulus afforded by railway communications. The rivers, as has been pointed out, are of limited utility, and roads, though cheaper than railways to construct, are costly to maintain, offer no financial compensation, and serve not to displace but only to expedite the slow, inefficient, and wasteful system of human portage. The caravan travels only at certain seasons of the year, when weather conditions are favourable; it moves slowly and is liable to prolonged delays at any accident; and, unless the journey is begun and concluded within one of the periods when agricultural operations are suspended, the absence of the porters entails an unwelcome shrinkage in a labour supply which is never too plentiful. It has been estimated that in French Guinea the carriage of goods by train has set free for productive work a force of 150,000 labourers; and there is truth in the dictum that, whilst portage dispersed and impoverished, the railway has attracted and enriched. As regards the route selected, the dominant consideration was to promote the economic progress of the colony by developing and exploiting the resources of the Futa Jalon region, and by utilizing it as a connecting link between the coast and the far interior. The district provided the natural exit route from the region of the Western Sudan, but the commercial currents which issued thence tended to flow along the borders of French Guinea into the possessions of her Portuguese and British neighbours. The railway project therefore had in view the diversion of these streams of trade into their natural channel through the French colony. That the railway should be a State undertaking seems to have been generally agreed;

Guinea merchants were averse to the establishment of a powerful monopolist company which might use its power to the detriment of vested interests, and hoped that the State, by retaining control of rates, would protect and promote the free commercial development of the country.

(d) *Posts, Telegraphs, and Telephones*

At the close of 1913 the colony had thirty-two post-offices, twenty-seven of which did telegraphic business. Mails were despatched every week-day between Konakri and the post-offices on the railway, and there was a connexion twice a week between Kankan, the railway terminus, and Bela. Settlements on the coast are served by sea—Boke, Victoria, and Boffa twice a month, and Forecaria and Benty once a month—by steamers of the *Compagnie des Chargeurs Réunis*. Away from the railway and the coast the administrative and commercial posts have mail deliveries by courier at intervals varying with their accessibility and their importance.

There were close upon 2,000 miles of telegraph line at the end of 1913. These were grouped in three principal systems, with secondary lines in connexion. The main lines were the Sudan line from Konakri, *via* Kindia, Mamu, Dabola, Kurusa, Kankan, and Sigiri; the Ivory Coast line from Konakri, *via* Kindia, Mamu, Dabola, Farana, Kissidugu, and Bela; and the Senegal line from Konakri, *via* Dubreka, Boffa, Boke, Bensane, and Kade. The secondary lines were the Futa Jalon line from Mamu, *via* Timbo, Ditin, Labe, and Mali to Pita; lines from Kankan to Bela and to Bamako; lines from Farana to Kurusa and, *via* Kaba, to Mamu; a line from Bela to Geasso; and a line from Konakri to Forecaria, *via* Coya.

An urban telephone system was installed at Konakri in 1913.

(2) EXTERNAL

(a) *Ports*

Konakri is the only port of the colony which offers facilities for ocean shipping. The harbour, which is in a natural basin about a mile in length, nearly surrounded by an extensive bank, has depths of 3 to 4½ fathoms; the entrance has a depth of 23 ft., is 110 yds. wide, and is marked by buoys. The Government pier will accommodate large vessels, and there are one or two other jetties or wharves in private ownership. The Government pier is about 1,100 ft. in length; the inner part, 500 ft. long, being built of masonry, the remainder of wood. The piers and wharves are served by a Decauville rail system which runs through the principal streets of the town and facilitates the handling of cargo. In the harbour spring tides rise 11 ft. and neap tides 9 ft. The tides run strongly in the channel outside the port, and off the entrance the conjunction of a spring ebb with a stiff south-westerly breeze may cause a confused sea which resembles breakers and is dangerous to boats. With the exception of the tornadoes, which blow off shore and are of short duration, no gales are experienced on this coast.

As already stated in connexion with the rivers, Victoria is visited by a few ocean-going vessels, and other places along the coast, such as Dubreka and Boffa, can be used as ports of call by sailing ships and small steamers; but these have been deprived by the growth of Konakri of such importance as they once possessed, and are now seldom visited by vessels other than coasting craft.

(b) *Shipping Lines*

Before the outbreak of war Konakri was a port of call for the vessels of several shipping lines. The steamers of the Compagnie des Chargeurs Réunis, sailing from Le Havre and Bordeaux to Matadi, called once a month, as did those of the Société Marseillaise

de Navigation Fraissinet et Compagnie, from Marseilles to Dahomey, &c. Cyprien Fabre et Compagnie, of Marseilles, had inaugurated a monthly service by cargo boats, in which a few passengers could be accommodated, their freights being much lower than those of the other French lines. Fortnightly services were maintained by Elder, Dempster & Co., from Liverpool to the West Coast, and by the Woermann-Linie, from Hamburg, Antwerp, and Boulogne to Liberia, &c.; during the dry season the German vessels called once a month at Victoria. The mail boats of the Compagnie Belge Maritime du Congo, from Antwerp to Matadi, called at Konakri every three weeks on their return journey; while their ordinary service, from Antwerp, Dunkirk, Calais, Boulogne, and Bordeaux or Bayonne, included a monthly call at Guinea ports. Overseas mails are entrusted to all ships touching at Konakri, but registered mails only to the Compagnie des Chargeurs Réunis, which is subsidized by the State.

In the days before Konakri had attained its present development, tramp steamers were not uncommon on the coast, but they are now to be seen only in the Rio Nuñez, where cargoes of palm kernels and ground-nuts may be shipped. Heavy goods, such as building materials, are brought out in three-masted sailing vessels, many of them Italian, which usually go on to America to load up with sugar. American oils and tobaccos come in American bottoms. The prevailing practice before the war was for Guinea houses importing goods from Europe to join in chartering a steamer, usually British. This vessel would call at Liverpool, Hamburg, Antwerp, and a French port, discharge at Konakri and Victoria, and return with a cargo of palm kernels and ground-nuts. The coasting trade is mostly carried on in small cutters and schooners, which need not necessarily be under the French flag.

Shipping Statistics.—On the annual average for the period 1905-14 the ports of the colony were entered by 596 vessels, of 612,504 tons. Of these 286 vessels, of

185,723 tons, or 30 per cent. of the total tonnage, flew the British flag; 185 vessels, of 170,408 tons, or 28 per cent., flew the French flag; 86 vessels, of 163,654 tons, or 27 per cent., were German; 19 vessels, of 80,667 tons, or 13 per cent., were Belgian; and 4 vessels, of 5,454 tons, or rather under 1 per cent., were Greek.¹ For the coasting trade the figures for vessels entered on the annual average of the period 1909-13 were: Konakri, 2,471 vessels of 28,504 tons; Boffa, 618 vessels of 10,481 tons; Farmorea, 1,278 vessels of 10,397 tons; Boke, 237 vessels of 8,914 tons; and Dubreka, 369 vessels of 3,548 tons.²

(c) *Telegraphic Communication*

As already mentioned, the land system of telegraphs is in connexion with those of Senegal, Upper Senegal, and the Ivory Coast. Cables run from Konakri to Dakar, and thence to Brest, in one direction, and to Sierra Leone, Liberia, &c., in the other. A wireless telegraph station at Konakri has been available for use by the general public since 1912.

(B) INDUSTRY

(1) LABOUR

French Guinea being a country in which climatic conditions preclude prolonged manual toil by the white man, the labour question is not without its difficulties. A few skilled artisans are introduced from neighbouring colonies, but there is nothing in the nature of the organized immigration which is found in some tropical countries, and it is considered improbable that such a policy, if adopted here, would achieve success. The colony is therefore obliged to recruit its labour force from its own population, which is estimated at about 1,800,000 souls.

¹ *Statistiques de la Navigation dans les Colonies Françaises.*

² *Rapports d'Ensemble Annuels.*

The economic value of the various elements of which this population is composed varies with their different racial characteristics. Of good physique, gentle manners, and docile disposition, the Susus, who inhabit the Dubreka and Mellakore regions, exhibit a fairly advanced civilization; they do not appear to have any innate aversion to labour, in which they engage readily; they are reasonably proficient in most kinds of employment; but their preference is for commerce, for which they evince a marked aptitude. They are, however, lacking in application and energy, and the extent to which they can be made to assist the economic progress of the colony depends upon the creation among them of needs which demand for their gratification the regular exercise of their commercial and industrial abilities. The Fulas, who inhabit the Futa Jalon region, are numerous, are intellectually superior to their neighbours, and are more capable of agricultural and industrial progress; but they dislike and despise labour, and their innate distaste for it has been fed for generations by the ownership of slaves, whom they have systematically employed in all kinds of work—agricultural, pastoral, industrial, commercial, and domestic. A race of some importance in the north and north-west of the colony, the people of Mandingo birth are inferior in natural ability to the Fulas, and are avaricious, unscrupulous, and dishonest; but they are deficient neither in activity nor in ambition, and in the heyday of caravanning the mercantile trains which ranged the country from the Ivory Coast to Senegal and from the Atlantic to Timbaktu were largely theirs. “Tenacious in pursuit of their schemes, and unscrupulous in their execution, they aspire to a general dominance; as merchants they have need of the white man, from whom they purchase goods; but they distrust him, and commerce with them is neither easy nor agreeable. Yet it must be admitted that, unlike their fellows, these blacks have a certain force, and by appealing to their greed it should be possible to enlist their aid in developing the agriculture and commerce

of the interior.”¹ Of the other races none is important either by its diffusion or by its industrial value. The best of them, perhaps, are the Bagas, a pacific people, not disinclined to agricultural pursuits, who grow rice, collect palm kernels, and tend a few flocks and herds; improvident, wasteful, and squalid, they are greatly inferior to their neighbours, and are of little economic value.

From what is known as to the size of the population of Guinea, and from what is generally accepted regarding the characteristics of the natives, it would seem not unreasonable to infer that the labour question might some day acquire a sinister importance. By those who regard the future without misgiving it is claimed that the Guinea native is peaceable and tolerably industrious; that, if inferior as a craftsman to the European, he can yet perform satisfactory work as a joiner, carpenter, mason, and smith; and that in the all-important matter of agriculture he is possessed of hereditary aptitude, enabling him to do the different kinds of work on an agricultural estate. The claim cannot be accepted without qualification. The technical skill of the native is limited, and he is incapable of work requiring mental application or really skilled craftsmanship; nor will his alleged aptitude for agricultural pursuits bear a close scrutiny. If left to himself he will invariably follow primitive methods which are anything but productive; and his utilization of the natural resources of the country is marred by improvident destruction. To clear a rice-field or to make a pasture, the Guinea native will not hesitate for a moment to start a forest fire, the destructive ravages of which he is powerless to control. In collecting rubber he will seriously injure or completely destroy the *lianas* upon which he depends for future supplies, and will then spoil the product by slovenly or fraudulent methods of preparation.

The question of the adequacy of its labour resources

¹ An opinion cited by F. Rouget, *La Guinée*, p. 163.

to the satisfactory development of the colony cannot therefore be dismissed lightly. If natives only are to be employed, will they be numerous enough in the districts where they will be required? If not, can the deficiency be made good, and how? Will they be willing to perform the services required of them, and, if willing, will they possess the necessary capacity? Such questions are vitally important, and they are not easily answered. The replies depend in a measure upon the yet uncertain effects of European civilization and control. Habits of industrious and intelligent toil can at best be slowly acquired by the native in contact with the white man's practices and modes of thought. It is but yesterday that Guinea was a mass of hostile tribes living in a state of chronic warfare, and the general reign of that security without which material and moral progress is impossible has but recently begun. There are signs that the natives will respond to the educational influences of their European rulers, and that under the stimulus of the new desires which are arising among them they will make a real advance in habits of industry and in capacity for work. Many years, however, must elapse before Guinea can be rendered self-sufficient for complete economic development.

(2) AGRICULTURE

(a) *Products of Commercial Value*

(i) *Wild Rubber and Other Natural Products.*—Of the products of commercial value rubber, which accounts for nearly 73 per cent. of the total export trade, is incomparably the most important. It is derived almost entirely from *lianas* growing wild in the colony. Other wild and semi-wild resources account for 8 per cent. of the export trade, the products of the pastoral industry for 13½ per cent., and purely agricultural products for no more than 2 per cent.

Rubber. The wild *lianas*, known as *landolphias*, from which rubber is derived, are found throughout the colony. They vary in size from the thickness of the human thumb to that of the human body; and, though their yield is inferior in quantity to that of the cultivated rubber-producing trees, they have the merit of growing more quickly. For the period 1900-14 the mean export of rubber was 3,183,572 lb., of the value of £441,060 (see Appendix, Table II); in the period of 1900-4 the export was 2,767,888 lb., valued at £347,423; in the next quinquennial period it was 3,245,023 lb., valued at £515,660; and in the period 1910-14 it was 3,537,805 lb., valued at £460,096.

Though rubber is almost entirely responsible for the rapid expansion in the trade of the colony which has occurred during recent years, its influence has not been altogether conducive to permanent welfare. It has demoralized the native; the prospect of large and quickly-earned profits has lured him away from productive work, and even this easy occupation he has not pursued without indulging in pernicious practices of reckless collection and ingenious adulteration. "In one day and without the smallest fatigue," as an official publication¹ has pointed out, "a man can extract about a pound of rubber, representing a wage of 4s. at present prices. To gain the same rate of daily wage a grower of ground-nuts must bring to the factory a hundredweight of pods; he must toil for eight months of the year, weeding and tending his field; and at harvest-time he must have his crop carried laboriously on the human back to the nearest dealer. Naturally, therefore, the native devotes his attention to rubber, so easy to win and so lucrative to sell." The danger of the situation was obvious, but it was not heeded by the commercial interests of the country so long as the boom in rubber continued; and the Government was alone in its desire

¹ See H. Jumelle, *Les Ressources Agricoles et Forestières des Colonies Françaises*.

to induce the native to return to productive agricultural pursuits.

Not only has the native abandoned all else in favour of rubber collection, but he has gone far to ruin even that industry by his barbarous methods and fraudulent abuses. Incapable of far-sighted views, he has tapped recklessly and brutally, with an eye only to present yield; thousands of *lianas* have been permanently injured by the treatment to which they have been subjected, and hundreds have been cut down and grubbed up, so that their yield might be slightly increased by tapping their roots. Defective preparation has too often followed reckless collection, the yield being lessened in value by the method of handling it, or the rubber being deliberately adulterated by the introduction of extraneous substances, such as inferior gums, oranges, stones, and water, which were secreted in the balls in which rubber used to be marketed in the colony. This abuse, which coincided with a period of depression, gravely prejudiced the reputation of the rubber produced in the colony in European markets, and whilst all rubber fell in price, Guinea rubber became almost unsaleable.

The collection of rubber is now governed by regulation, and practical instruction in tapping is given. The methods of its preparation have also been prescribed by law, and fraud has been checked by the prohibition of dealings in rubber otherwise than in strips. The result has demonstrated the quality of Guinea rubber when fairly handled. The best Konakri rubber is classified as next in order of merit to Pará, and commands a correspondingly satisfactory price.

Another drawback to the dominance of rubber is the sensitiveness of the colony to the fluctuations in the price of the commodity in the European markets. The booms and the slumps of Liverpool, Antwerp, and Bordeaux react instantly upon Guinea, where periods of high profits and feverish excitement alternate with times of depression, stagnation, and embarrassment. Thus in the year 1913 the price of rubber at Konakri

fell from about 4s. 6d. a lb. to about 1s. 6d., and the result was a commercial crisis which gravely affected the colony. In commenting upon it, the official report for the year remarked that, "despite the serious efforts which have been made to mitigate the disastrous consequences of the crisis, and despite the encouraging results obtained, the crops which ought to make up for deficiencies occasioned by a slump in the principal product, and, by swelling the exports, to provide the negroes with funds, are not yet generally enough cultivated or productive enough to restore the equilibrium of the colony. The transactions of the past year make it plain . . . that the native derives from his toil no more than is strictly necessary for the satisfaction of his most urgent needs. With reduced resources he cannot think of buying the various articles of luxury to which he used to treat himself when his income more than sufficed for his absolute wants."¹

Finally, there is the question of the maintenance of supplies. So seriously have the sources been affected by improvident methods of collection that, if the export has tended to increase, it has been only because the extension of communications has enabled the yield of new districts opened up in the interior to counter-balance the diminishing production of the old. In 1904 a director of the *Compagnie Française de l'Afrique Occidentale*, acting as the mouthpiece of French commercial interests, wrote thus to the Governor-General of French West Africa: "The apprehension that the production of rubber will soon become inadequate . . . seems to be well-founded, if we consider on the one hand the primitive or even barbarous methods by which rubber-yielding trees and plants have been, and still are, exploited, and on the other hand the small success so far achieved by attempts at cultivation. As regards exploitation, it is, indeed, but too certain that, through ignorance, and perhaps still more through want of foresight and an

¹ *Rapport d'Ensemble*, 1913, p. 306.

inordinate desire of gain, the natives have indulged in an extravagant tapping of the plants, which has sometimes gone to the length of cutting them down, thus destroying at a blow a natural wealth, which, properly husbanded, might have given a good and safe return for years. It is true that these cases of thoughtless destruction have been tending to disappear since the Colonial Governments and merchants have set about enlightening the natives as to their true interests. But even though the disappearance of rubber plants be thus retarded or prevented, that will be but an inadequate palliation of the rubber scarcity which may be expected, and there is another task of equal importance, namely, the encouragement and development of the cultivation of this valuable plant, so as to maintain the supply of raw materials for the industries which use them in ever-growing quantities."¹

Everybody was, indeed, agreed as to the object to be aimed at, and the Government has tried to promote the creation of new sources of supply side by side with the preservation of old ones, the education of the native, and the suppression of fraud. The plantation varieties of rubber, Pará (*Hevea brasiliensis*) and Ceará (*Manihot glaziovii*), will do well in the colony, and are superior to the wild *lianas*, as they have a higher yield, and run less risk of destruction by fires, by the depredations of cattle, and by bad tapping. Other sorts of cultivated rubber will also thrive, notably the *Castilloa elastica*, which may be tapped twice a year, and is in the front rank of imported rubber plants by its rapidity of growth, richness of yield, and ease of tapping. But the cultivation of all these rubbers requires patience and skill, and there seems to be little chance of inducing the improvident natives to undertake their systematic cultivation on any considerable scale.

Palm Kernels and Palm Oil give rise to an export averaging about £34,000 a year in value. The palms

¹ Y. Henry, *Le Caoutchouc dans l'Afrique Occidentale Française*, pp. 126-127.

are less numerous in Guinea than in some neighbouring colonies, but they flourish in the coastal region. Their thin and flexible trunks, not more than a foot thick, sometimes attain a height of 50 to 65 ft., terminating in a head of big leaves, among which grow the nuts, surrounded by thorns. The export figures of palm kernels and oil must not be taken as indicating the total possible production of the colony, for large quantities of nuts remain unused; and if efficient communications allowed of easy transport to the coast, the export trade would almost certainly expand. As in the case of rubber, the prevalent methods of exploitation are improvident and defective. The recent installation of a crushing plant at Konakri may help to stimulate production.

Gum Copal is losing its importance as an export, partly because of the destruction of the *copaiferae*, burnt in conflagrations or cut down to make room for rice-fields, and partly because of the difficulty and danger of collecting the resin on the fragile branches of trees growing on precipitous hillsides.

Kola Nuts, &c. Kola nuts and certain edible and oleaginous nuts, known locally as the *lamy*, the *méné*, and the *néri*, may also be had for the trouble of collection. They are gathered by the natives for culinary and other domestic purposes, but little use is made of them commercially. An improvement may, however, result from the recent establishment at Konakri of the plant for expressing oil.

(ii) *Cultivated Products*.—Agriculture is far from holding the place which it is desirable for it to occupy in the economy of the colony. It is adversely affected by the indolence and improvidence of the native, by the want of cheap transport in the districts remote from the railway, and by the dominance of rubber. By a series of crises due to fluctuations in the price of its main product, the colony has now, however, been compelled to pay serious attention to the increase of agricultural production. The cultures which must be encouraged in the interest of economic development are

of two varieties: annual crops and slow-maturing plants or trees. In the latter class are oil-palms, coconut palms, kola trees, and gum trees. Climatic conditions are favourable to the growth of these trees, and there is no lack of suitable land in Lower Guinea; but the apathy and conservatism of the native are formidable obstacles to the progress of cultivation, whether by native enterprise or under European control. European plantations are few and small, and have not achieved much success. Annual crops are grown mostly for domestic consumption; in this category are rice, millet, manioc, and a crop (*Paspalum longiflorum*) known locally as *fonio*; ground-nuts and sesame seed make a small contribution to the export trade.

The *Ground-nuts* of French Guinea are markedly inferior to those of some other West African colonies, notably those of Senegal. The crop is smaller, and its oil content is much less valuable. Whereas the best Senegal nuts will yield 30 per cent. of edible oil and 7 or 8 per cent. of lamp and factory oil, the Guinea nut will yield nothing better than lamp oil at the first crushing and factory oil at the second. The reason appears to be that the heavy, clayey soils of the colony are unfavourable to the habits of the plant, which pushes its pods into the ground, where they remain until they ripen. There cannot, therefore, be any great future in Guinea for a crop which can be produced in far more favourable circumstances in other countries. Moreover, ground-nuts are bulky in proportion to their value, and even where suitable soil exists the transport question presents difficulties.

Sesame Seed. The higher value of sesame seed enables this plant to be grown profitably at a greater distance from means of communication. The seed used to be one of the chief exports of the colony, shiploads of it being despatched from the Rio Pongo and Mellakore districts; but, like other forms of activity, the cultivation of sesame was suspended in favour of rubber collection. The seed is rich in oil, and the crop, which ought to be remunerative, would be a valuable resource

for the less favoured districts of the colony, if the natives could be induced to devote to it the care which is requisite for successful production.

Rice is important because it forms one of the chief items in the dietary of the people. In the Susu districts and in the Niger basin it is almost the only food, and in the Futa Jalon region it is a staple article of diet. Two sorts are cultivated; an American rice, grown in the Indo-Chinese fashion in swampy ground near the sea, and a mountain rice, which is smaller, and red in colour. Guinea ought to become increasingly capable of providing out of its own resources for its enormous consumption of rice; and, in fact, the agricultural renaissance which the Government has been striving to promote is to some extent apparent in the increasing production of swamp rice in the coastal region. The people of the Mellakore, Bramaya, Rio Pongo, and Rio Nuñez districts are more and more devoting themselves to this pursuit, and in some places the activity is so considerable that labour has to be introduced from elsewhere to reinforce the local population. But the coastal region as a whole is still far from having attained its maximum productivity. If, as was suggested in the official report for the year 1912, the defectiveness of the native processes of milling are the main obstacles to development, the recent establishment of a rice-mill at Konakri should have beneficial results.

Cotton is grown in all the districts of the colony where transport difficulties make European textiles expensive. The kind chiefly produced has no value on the European market; but the possibility that more useful varieties might be introduced and might prove successful under intelligent methods of cultivation has not escaped the attention of French commercial interests. Meanwhile, however, though supported by the Association Cotonnière Coloniale, which was formed to defend the economic, industrial, and commercial interests of the French cotton industry, the cultivation of cotton in Guinea does not seem to make

much progress. In Lower Guinea the soil, the climate, the density of the population, and the cheapness of imported textiles are all unfavourable to it, and experiments conducted in the interior have not been particularly encouraging. Native methods fall far short of the perfected cultivation which the better sorts of cotton require, and circumstances do not admit of European operations on a large scale.

Other Crops. Maize, millet, *fonio*, manioc, sweet potatoes, and yams are grown for food. Manioc grows luxuriantly, and its rhizomes, being buried in the soil, are safe from the ravages of locusts. Maize may be reaped three months after it is sown. *Fonio* is the principal crop in the Futa Jalon region; easy to cultivate, and doing well on ground unfitted for rice and millet, it suits both the habits of the people and the nature of the soil; but, despite its suitability to local conditions, it is not produced in adequate quantities. An indigenous coffee is exported in small amounts, but is less lucrative than rubber, and therefore is comparatively neglected. Tobacco, like cotton, is grown in districts where difficulties of communication make the imported article expensive; but the natives prefer American tobaccos, when they are obtainable.

Fruit. Bananas and pineapples are often to be found growing without attention round the villages; and the littoral of French Guinea, by reason of its accessibility and suitable soil and climate, was believed by the Colonial authorities to offer a promising field for the development of a fruit trade. A certain number of European estates, mostly near Konakri, have been laid out for the growth of fruit, but the sanguine expectations with which they were started have not been realized. For the years 1900-14 the average exports of bananas and pineapples were valued at £291 and £181 respectively, the highest annual averages for a quinquennial period being £555 and £468 in 1910-14. If the country is ever to become an important producer of fruit, the question of cheap, quick, and regular transport to Europe must be dealt

with, and the whole business of shipping and marketing must be organized by a large company able not only to grow bananas on a large scale itself, but also to handle the crops of the smaller growers.

(iii) *Live-stock and Animal Products*.—Stock raising is practised on an extensive scale in all districts where there is pasture, and especially in the Futa Jalon region and the valley of the upper Niger. At the census taken in 1912 the numbers of live-stock in the colony were stated to be 400,000 cattle, 150,000 sheep, 140,000 goats, and 3,000 horses; but the enumeration, based largely upon native estimates, had no pretensions to exactness, and it is certain that the flocks and herds were greatly underestimated.

The native loves his animals, which often constitute the whole of his wealth, and are always the evidence of his social standing; but he blindly follows antiquated empirical methods, and it is certain that the colony could support many more cattle than it does at present, and that stock-raising, if it were pursued on more enlightened principles, would acquire much greater economic importance. . The great obstacles to expansion are the difficulty of providing food-stuffs during the dry season, the slovenly and neglectful methods of the natives, and the prevalence of endemic and epidemic diseases. Pasture is plentiful enough during the wet season, but from January to April the cattle must either be driven down to the river valleys or eke out a precarious existence on the young growths of the bush shrubs, or on a sort of short grass which springs up after a tract of bush has been burnt off. Hardy though the predominant type is, the strain of this period of malnutrition and the ill-effects of a sudden return to luxuriant vegetation on the renewal of the rains are injurious to the herds, and especially to young calves and to cows in milk. The native does nothing to improve prevalent conditions. He tends his cattle indifferently, ignores sanitary precautions, and impairs the vigour of the stock by breeding from immature animals. In addition to this, and partly, no doubt, as a conse-

quence of it, disease of one sort or another is always present among the herds. The cattle of the Futa Jalon region are a prey to an endemic malady which carries off many of them every year. In 1913 a deadly epidemic of pneumonia, introduced apparently by cattle imported from the Sudan, decimated the herds in Upper Guinea, and thousands of animals succumbed in the Sigiri, Kankan, Kurusa, and Bela districts. The disaster was the more regrettable as stock-raising had begun in those districts to recover from the effects of former misfortunes; many natives had invested the whole of their capital in live-stock, and herds were growing in size and numbers. Some villages lost practically all the animals they possessed, and many small proprietors were utterly ruined. Stock-raising is, no doubt, capable of becoming of great economic importance to the colony; but its future is to some extent menaced by the absence of improvement in methods and the lack of efficient safeguards against the more fatal diseases.

Sheep are found all over the colony, but nowhere in large flocks, the usual practice being for each family to keep a few animals. The goat takes the place of the sheep in the hill districts. Horses do not do well, the climate not being favourable and the native having no natural aptitude for the care and management of them. If ever the colony should possess a system of carriage roads, the work of traction upon them would have to be performed by mules or by mechanical power.

Exports of live-stock and animal products have grown considerably since the beginning of the present century. Comparing the annual averages of the periods 1900-4 and 1910-14, the export of live-stock has risen from £38,619 to £53,464; that of hides from £8,869 to £58,546; and that of other animal products from £1,638 to £6,444 (see Appendix, Table II, p. 59). The increase is not to be ascribed entirely to greater activity in the pastoral industry, since it is primarily due to a reaction in the rubber markets. Between the trade in rubber and that in cattle the relation is close, since a

fall in rubber prices reduces the native's earnings and compels him against his inclination to sell his animals in order to find the means of paying his taxes and providing for his other wants. "Though the native," says a recent report,¹ "still has a marked tendency to retain his herds, the consequence at once of his affection for them and of his pride of ownership, it must be admitted that necessity has constrained him to regard his animals in a more practical light." Not long ago commerce was confined to supplying requirements for local consumption, and then it was often almost impossible to obtain butcher's meat, even in the stock-raising districts. At present a much greater domestic demand is easily satisfied, and at the same time exports are greater. It should be added that the striking increase in the export of hides is far from being a sign of progress, since it arises from the exceptional mortality among the herds in recent years, and furnishes rather disquieting evidence of the diminution in their size which must have taken place.

A ready sale for the products of the industry seems to be assured by the variety of the markets which are open to it. In addition to an increasing domestic demand, the colony is favourably situated both with regard to the countries to the south of it, where live-stock is scarce and butcher's meat frequently unobtainable, and with regard to France, where increased consumption, diminished production, and a growing tendency to export French cattle were conspiring before the outbreak of war to make meat both scarce and dear. To take advantage of her opportunities, however, the colony will have to have better shipping facilities, and will probably have to adopt the refrigerating system. The export of live animals overseas is open to many objections: it demands special transport arrangements, and involves high freights and serious losses by the death or deterioration of the animals during the

¹ *Rapport d'Ensemble*, 1912.

voyage. The sending of meat in a frozen state appears to be a satisfactory alternative.

(b) *Forestry*

Apart from the collection of rubber and the other wild products to which allusion has already been made, there is not much attempt at forest exploitation. On one concession in the Dubreka district the mangrove is utilized both for its bark, which yields a dye, and for its stems, which make serviceable telegraph poles. Other trees yield good cabinet woods and timber suitable for building purposes. But, like the *lianas* and the palms, useful trees are too often wantonly destroyed in the grass and forest fires kindled by the natives.

The natives retain their customary rights of exploitation in the woods belonging to the State domain, but may there be compelled to observe rational methods. European exploitation of the forests must be by virtue of a concession, or under a personal licence, the Government imposing conditions as to the nature and size of the trees which may be felled, and prohibiting, or retaining a right to prohibit, the destruction of plants yielding rubber, gum, commercial essences, &c.

(c) *Land Tenure*

Most of the land is held by the natives, largely upon a sort of communal basis. The law provides that the title to land in private ownership may be, and in some cases must be, registered, the advantage of this being that it settles the status of land claimed to be held in private or collective native ownership. Realty held by natives may not be sold or let to individuals without the permission of the Lieutenant-Governor. The land belonging to the State is granted under a system of concessions in urban and in rural holdings; but the machinery has not yet been much used except in the

towns, European settlement beyond the urban limits being comparatively rare and on a small scale. Rural concessions, including grants for agricultural, pastoral, and forestry purposes, may be rented at from 2*d.* to 4*d.* an acre, and may be purchased at prices which range, according to the situation and extent of the concession, from 1*s.* 6*d.* to 3*s.* an acre. Improvement conditions are imposed, and provisions are inserted for safeguarding the interests of the native population of the district within which the concession is situated.

(3) FISHERIES

The seas of Guinea are rich in fish, and fish are found in the rivers also; but there is no fishing industry. The natives catch turtles, which are plentiful in the Iles de Los and on the sandbanks of the Konkure, Coba, and lower Komponi; oysters, prawns and shrimps, spiny lobsters, and large edible crabs are taken; the flesh of the alligators which infest the rivers is also eaten. Fishing is not likely to develop among the natives; for the seas are dangerous for the frail local craft, and the rock-strewn bottom increases the difficulty of the undertaking.

(4) MINERALS

So far as at present ascertained, the mineral resources of the country have no great importance. Gold exists in reefs in the Sigiri district, and in alluvial deposits in various localities; and it has been found in some of the rivers of the interior. Sulphate of iron occurs in the lower Rio Nuñez valley, but is not of much commercial value. A clayey iron, known as laterite, is widely distributed, and hopes were once entertained that it might be exploitable, but analyses of it have not been encouraging. Some clays, china clays, and ferruginous conglomerates are worked by the natives for their own purposes—chiefly for use as building material. It is said to be geologically improbable that

coal or anthracite exists in the colony; and discoveries of tin and copper, though not geologically unlikely, have not, in fact, been made.

There is some extraction of gold by the natives, chiefly from the alluvial deposits; and, although with their primitive methods and imperfect appliances they cannot always reach the areas of greatest richness, the total yield of their operations appears to be not inconsiderable. European experiments have not been very successful. A few companies were formed in 1903, and more came into being in 1907 and 1908, the total number amounting to twenty or more. The chief of them were the Société Anonyme des Dragages Aurifères du Tinkisso; the Compagnie des Mines d'Or de Siguiri; the Compagnie Minière de Guinée; and the Société des Mines de la Haute-Guinée. These companies expended considerable sums of money in prospecting and in boring and drilling, to determine the value of alluvial deposits and the existence of reefs, but the results were disappointing. The first-named company had two dredges working for several years in the sands of the bed of the Tinkisso; but the quantity of material which the dredges handled was small, and only a low percentage of its gold content was recovered. The Compagnie Minière de Guinée attempted the exploitation of an alluvial deposit which had already been worked by natives, but its efforts did not prove successful, and the work was abandoned. In 1913 all the companies had discontinued operations except the Compagnie des Mines d'Or de Siguiri, which worked intermittently.

(C) COMMERCE

(1) DOMESTIC

The natives carry on some trade among themselves, but from the European point of view domestic commerce consists in the main of the purchase from the natives of rubber, live-stock, and other local produce on

the one hand, and on the other of the sale to them of textiles, groceries, tobaccos, metal goods, and other imported articles of necessity and luxury. This trade is in the hands of a sort of commercial hierarchy, with the large European business-house at the top, the native pedlar at the bottom, and the small European merchant and the Syrian trader in intermediate positions between the two. The chief importing and exporting houses have in Europe a parent house or a branch or some establishment of that nature, which acts for them in the consignment of European merchandise and the disposal of local produce. Before the outbreak of war some of the larger houses used to have several European branches, as, for example, one in France, one at Liverpool, and one at Hamburg. Houses with but one establishment and merchants established in the colony employ agents to act for them at the ports, the intervention of the agent being regarded as indispensable, though disliked as being tiresome and costly. Imports are sometimes paid for by shipments in kind, and in any case purchases are rarely for cash on delivery, the usual arrangement being for payment in three months to French houses and in six months to British houses. Imported goods are almost invariably sent for delivery at Konakri, where the consignee often incurs heavy costs for the discharge of his cargo, unless he makes his own arrangements for dealing with it. Transport from the wharf to the warehouse is, however, facilitated by a system of Decauville rails which run through all the chief streets of the town, and over which the merchant's private trolleys may easily be pushed by hand. Imports at Konakri pay a *droit de Decauville* of 2 francs a ton.

Konakri is the commercial centre of the colony, the other places on the coast, such as Boke, Victoria, Boffa, and Dubreka, being subsidiary to it, and having few direct relations with Europe. Most of the larger houses are companies with registered offices at Konakri, and with branches on the rivers and in the most important places in the interior, such as Kindia, which has

become an active commercial centre, and at Sigiri, Kankan, and Kurusa, in Upper Guinea. These establishments and their branches supply goods on a semi-wholesale basis to the smaller European houses and to Syrian and native dealers. As a rule, the main business of the branches is retail trade, and some of them have a large turn-over. The system of sales on commission has undergone a considerable extension in recent years, this being the only means of securing a market for new sorts of goods in which the local merchant cannot afford to speculate, but which the native will purchase, if the opportunity is presented to him.

The intervention of the Syrian dealers dates from 1897, when the first representatives of this race began operations as intermediaries between the European houses and the native vendors of local produce. The success of the first-comers was immediate; with no shops, no establishment charges, and no code of commercial morality, they were in a position to make large profits by means both legitimate and illegitimate; and it is said that one of them, landing at Konakri with a capital of £20, was worth £4,000 at the end of four years. Where these were so conspicuously successful, others of the same race quickly followed, and, despite strenuous opposition on the part of the European community, the whole trade with the interior soon began to pass through Syrian hands. With the rapid expansion in their numbers, which had risen to 700 by the end of 1905, the Syrians could no longer hope to grow rich as speedily as in earlier years; but, in spite of competition with each other and of continued European antagonism, they continued as a class to make a comfortable living. Their sole rivals in their own line of business were the native dealers and the traders coming in from Sierra Leone and Senegal. Some of the natives of the colony are not lacking in commercial aptitude, but they were hampered by their want of education and their ignorance of arithmetic. Compared with them the Sierra Leone traders are lettered; they have an adequate primary education,

and can master the native languages; but their commercial and personal morality is of a low type. They failed, therefore, to establish the ascendancy which has often been acquired by their less able and less instructed Wolof rivals from Senegal, many of whom, settling in the colony, have risen to the rank of local chiefs.

The great undeveloped interior beyond the centres of civilization is the commercial domain of the native pedlar or *diula*. Visiting as he does the smallest villages and remotest corners of the colony, the *diula* is an essential link in the commercial chain. His methods, however, are primitive and unsatisfactory, consisting as they do of a system of sales on credit for future payments in kind, which leads to endless disputes, and is made workable only by the expedient of setting off unconscionable gain against unnecessary loss. The native prefers to deal direct with European houses when he can, and the pedlar retreats before the advance of civilization. It has been estimated that, by transferring trade to European hands, the provision of adequate means of communication would have the important economic effect of restoring some 10,000 native pedlars to agriculture, which was the occupation of their ancestors.

Reference has already been made to the native caravans, or strings of laden porters, by which the rubber and other similar produce of the interior is made available for commerce. With regard to live-stock the position is somewhat different, as a trade in beasts is carried on all over the colony in markets held in the principal and secondary centres, the breeder making a few sales to the *diula* in the pastoral districts, but tending to do most of his business in certain recognized centres at fixed seasons of the year. Dabola and Bissikrima attract the cattle of the Baïlo region, and there Upper Guinea satisfies its requirements in the matter of live-stock. Kindia and Mamu are the chief outlets of the Futa Jalon and other pastoral regions, and it is here that cattle are sold both to the

Sierra Leone brokers and to the Konakri butchers who provision the capital and the steamers which use it as a port of call. The new road from Labe to Mamu (see p. 14) should help to feed the Mamu market. A little business in cattle from the adjoining districts is also done at Boke and Dubréka. The supply of the markets is variable, and the quality is also uncertain, many immature animals being sent for sale. The secondary markets of the interior are frequented mainly by native middlemen, those of Upper Guinea dealing mostly in cattle and sheep imported from the Sudan.

Chambers of Commerce exist at Konakri and at Kankan.

(2) FOREIGN

(a) *Exports*

Values.—The mean value of the exports for the period 1900-14, calculated from the annual average, was £606,675 (see Appendix, Table I, p. 58). The export trade has undergone a considerable expansion during the last quarter of a century: from a value of £209,215 in 1895 it had risen to £403,515 in 1900, to £654,946 in 1905, and to £732,256 in 1910, whilst in 1912 it exceeded £800,000. The average annual values of the three quinquennial periods from 1900 to 1914 were respectively £454,699, £677,145, and £688,181.

Rubber is the predominant export; on the annual average of the period 1900-14 it accounted for nearly 73 per cent. of the total exports of the colony (see Appendix, Table II, p. 59). Other exports were live-stock, about 8 per cent.; palm kernels, rather over 5 per cent.; hides, 5 per cent.; gum copal, just under 2 per cent.; ground-nuts and sesame seed, each about 1 per cent.; other animal products, kola nuts, ivory, and gold, each about $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. With the single exception of kola nuts, all show a tendency to expansion, notably rubber, live-stock, palm kernels, and hides. In addition, the export of raw cotton and of wool showed signs of expansion in the most recent years for which returns are

available, though the total was still insignificant. The values of the exports will be found in the Appendix, Table II, p. 59.

Countries of Destination.—France is the largest purchaser of the colony's produce, having taken 36 per cent. of the exports during the period 1900-14 (see Appendix, Table III, p. 60); the French colonies took about $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., the United Kingdom 32 per cent., Germany $21\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., Sierra Leone 7 per cent., and Liberia $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.

The French share in the trade has undergone a large increase, both actual and relative, during the period: whereas in 1900-4 it amounted to no more than 17 per cent. of the whole, in 1910-14 it amounted to 48 per cent. (see Appendix, Table III, p. 60). In the case of Sierra Leone there has been a slight increase actually and relatively. The share of the United Kingdom has declined by about £60,000 a year actually, and has fallen relatively from 46 per cent. to 22 per cent. That of Germany, though rising actually, declined relatively.

Further particulars of the trade with the principal countries will be found in the Appendix, Table IV, p. 61.

(b) Imports

Values.—Like the exports, the imports show a marked expansion; from under £500,000 in 1900 they rose to over £1,000,000 in 1910, the annual averages for the quinquennial periods from 1900 to 1914 being £521,195, £708,639, and £766,606, and the mean £665,480 (see Appendix, Table I, p. 58).

The chief imports (Table II, p. 59) are textiles, which accounted for 40 per cent. of the import trade during the period 1900-14; metal goods, 13 per cent.; farinaceous substances, $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.; kola nuts, palm oil, rubber, &c., $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.; liquors and metals, each 4 per cent.; groceries, tobacco, &c., about $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.; and building materials, coal, and oil, 3 per cent. An increase, both actual and relative, is seen in the case of textiles, farinaceous substances, metals,

and building materials, &c. Liquors, groceries, &c., have increased actually, but have maintained the same relative proportion. A relative decline is found in the case of metal goods.

Countries of Origin.—France supplied 40 per cent. of the imports in the period 1900-14; the French colonies supplied $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., the United Kingdom 38 per cent., Germany $9\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., Liberia not quite 3 per cent., and Sierra Leone not quite 2 per cent. Among other countries, which together supplied 6 per cent., are included the United States with a share of something under 2 per cent. for the whole period. Holland, Belgium, and Italy, separate figures for which are not available before 1908, supplied respectively 2 per cent., 2 per cent., and $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. in the period 1910-14.

If the three quinquennial periods from 1900 to 1914 be compared, it will be found that the share of France and of the French colonies in the import trade has increased both actually and relatively; that the share of Germany declined both actually and relatively; and that the share of the United Kingdom, though declining relatively, actually increased. The placing in France of large orders for railway materials accounts to some extent for the growth in the French trade.

Further particulars of the trade with the principal countries will be found in Table V of the Appendix (p. 62).

(c) *Customs and Tariffs*

Guinea belongs to a group of colonies to which the ordinary French tariff does not apply. Its fiscal regime imposes specific duties on some imports, notably tobacco, arms and ammunition, and liquors; charges the majority with *ad valorem* duties; levies a surtax on goods of foreign origin; and grants exemption from duty in certain cases, including live-stock, fresh meat, fish, fruit, and vegetables, agricultural machinery and tools, coal, manures, ships and

boats, rice, rubber, palm kernels, sesame seed, ground-nuts, and gum copal. A duty of 7 per cent. *ad valorem* is levied on all rubber exported.

(D) FINANCE

(1) *Public Finance*

The public finance of French Guinea is governed in part by the general budget of the Government of French West Africa and in part by the local budget of the colony itself. The general budget provides for the service of the debt, maintains the solvency of the constituent colonies, and besides defraying its own expenses meets those of certain services in the colonies, such as the customs, judicial administration, and financial control. It also bears the cost of such works as are of general utility, or, not being of general utility, are yet thought to be urgently required and to be beyond the financial resources of the colony in question. The general budget derives its revenue mainly from the customs, excise, and shipping dues, and from the profits on the working of the colonial railways. The local budget bears the cost of local administration, its chief resource being the capitation tax of 4 francs a head, payable in French money. On the annual average of the years 1909-13 the revenue of the local budget was £276,818, and its expenditure was £264,009. The revenue was made up of capitation tax, £219,735; trading licences, &c., £17,733; posts and telegraph, £8,131; and miscellaneous, £31,219.

(2) *Currency*

The gold, silver, and base metal coins of France circulate in the colony, and alone are legal tender, with the addition of the English sovereign. A certain amount of English money is in circulation in the country by virtue of the commercial connexion with Sierra Leone.

(3) *Banking*

The Banque de l'Afrique Occidentale, formerly known as the Bank of Senegal, opened a branch at Konakri in 1902. It enjoys a privileged position, and issues notes of all denominations from 5 francs to 1,000 francs. It is the only institution of the kind in the colony; nor has Guinea any co-operative credit institutions. The nearest approach to them are the agricultural prudential societies, which have been organized in certain districts. As official reports admit, the idea upon which these societies are based is foreign to the mentality of the native, who never looks beyond the morrow, and is blind to the advantages of provident organization. Yet no small good would be likely to result if these societies were to be generally established, and their funds judiciously employed under official guidance to further the agricultural renaissance which is so important to the future prosperity of the colony.

(E) GENERAL OBSERVATIONS.

To estimate the future possibilities of the country is not an easy matter. Impressed by the great increase in its trade during recent years, the majority of French writers upon the subject entertain sanguine expectations, and distinguished economists believe that Guinea has as brilliant a destiny as any possession in the colonial empire of the French. The commercial expansion is certainly calculated to arrest the attention; for the total trade, which stood at £412,131 in 1895, reached £1,411,939 in 1905, and progressed again to nearly two millions sterling in 1910. But the prosperity of the past is no sure indication of progress in the future. It has been founded almost entirely upon the collection and export of rubber, and the dominance of this one commodity is not unattended by drawbacks and dangers. In the first place, as already pointed out, the constant

fluctuations in the price of rubber in the world's markets react adversely upon the colony, since the booms and the slumps of Europe produce in Guinea corresponding bursts of feverish activity and unwholesome excitement in alternation with periods of stagnation, depression, and embarrassment. And even if the markets were stable, a difficulty would arise in the maintenance of supplies. The rubber exported from the country is the product, not of scientifically tended and progressively expanding plantations, but of wild plants growing haphazard in the woods; the improvident native destroys these or impairs their productivity by his careless methods of collection and by his reckless clearance fires; and the greater the activity in the collection of rubber, the greater is the damage inflicted on the sources of supply, and the greater the need for going further afield, with the prospect of exploiting at an ever-increasing cost, and of destroying in turn, the resources of the more remote regions of the interior. If the export of rubber has so far been maintained, it has been rather by the exploitation of successive new districts than by the regular productiveness of the old, and to expansion of this nature there is an obvious limit.

The question thus arises how far the other resources of the country are capable of replacing or supplementing rubber. There are no manufacturing enterprises, nor can any be undertaken during the continuance of the conditions prevailing to-day. The prospects of mining expansion hold out no substantial hopes. If development is to occur, it must apparently take place in the pastoral and agricultural spheres. Stock-raising is the main resource of the Futa Jalon region, and has made rapid strides in the Upper Niger district during recent years; herds have increased both in size and in numbers; an active commerce in live-stock is carried on; and exports of animals and animal products show a marked tendency to increase. Yet the omens are not so propitious as might be inferred by a superficial observer. Proud and fond of

his beasts though the native is, he has little skill in their care and management; in breeding he exercises no discrimination in the selection of his stock; in marketing them he lacks the prudence to offer only beasts which are mature; in tending them he makes no provision either for their well-being in adverse conditions of weather or for feeding them in the critical period when the cessation of the rains deprives them of their natural pastures; and the endemic and epidemic maladies which grievously impair the vigour of the herds, even when they do not decimate or exterminate them, set a limit to the possibilities of development in the pastoral sphere.

Nor, again, does agriculture seem likely to achieve any notable expansion. To some extent, it is true, the native is an agriculturist by instinct and heredity; but work is distasteful to him; he is wasteful, negligent, and improvident; his methods are primitive; and such results as he achieves are as a rule deplorably inadequate both in quantity and in quality. Further, except in the alluvial soils of some of its river valleys, the colony offers no such prospects of agricultural wealth as are found in many tropical and sub-tropical countries. For the most part Guinea is an old, much worked, long cultivated land, and it would be a mistake to suppose that it possesses great fertility. The soil soon becomes exhausted, its yield is moderate, and under the native system of cultivation it is rested for years after each crop, with the consequence that huge tracts of land are laid under contribution for the maintenance of relatively few people. If the native could be induced to adopt modern methods of ploughing, manuring, and tending and harvesting his crops, this particular difficulty might be partially relieved; but, in fact, things have hitherto been going from bad to worse. Whenever a native wants to cultivate new ground or to make a new pasture, his method of procedure is to clear off the trees and scrub by large fires; then the tropical rains come, and in many places, when the binding influence of the tree

roots is removed, the thin layer of soil is washed away from the underlying rock. Thus the arid hill regions of the country become more arid still, and there are some who contend that stock-raising and agriculture, which ought to be the main resources of the colony, tend rather to impair its productivity.

In the last resort, the real weakness of the country seems to lie in the fact that, European exploitation being impracticable, the future will be such as the natives of the colony choose to make it, and that the natives, with their disinclination for work, their aversion to progress, their apathy, negligence, and improvidence, are no fit architects of economic prosperity. "If the question of European plantations and exploitations be seriously considered in the light of all the facts, the conclusion is irresistible that they can form only an exception, and that a long time must elapse before any real colonization takes place. The prosperity of Guinea must be based upon the development of cultivation by the natives."¹ In the opinion of another writer² the unfortunate and costly experiments made by Europeans in the past "seem to be due to our profound ignorance of the country and its people; to our preconceived determination to reject *en bloc* all the experimental methods of the natives in favour of the counsels of more or less competent theorists; to the want of persistence and to the impatience of those who put up the money, and then want it back again immediately, and give up the game; to the necessity for intensive, and therefore very costly, cultivation of land which quickly becomes exhausted; sometimes to the negligence or ill-will of the neighbouring village; finally, to the carelessness of the work-people, who take no account of time, and over whom there is no real control. Some of these obstacles will endure for a long while, and we must not encourage adventures

¹ *Annuaire Colonial*, 1915, p. 717.

² A. Arcin, *La Guinée Française*, pp. 88-89.

which discredit the colony. . . . European plantations on a big scale cannot be recommended."

The conclusion would seem to be that, in spite of the striking expansion in the colony's trade which has been witnessed during the last two decades, there remain many obstacles to surmount, and much educational and constructive work to accomplish, before its welfare can be said to rest upon a secure basis of economic stability.

APPENDIX

EXTRACTS FROM TREATIES, &c.

I

ARRANGEMENT CONCERNING THE DELIMITATION OF THE BRITISH AND FRENCH POSSESSIONS ON THE WEST COAST OF AFRICA

Signed at Paris, August 10, 1889

Art. II.—To the north of Sierra Leone, in accordance with the provisions of the Treaty of 1882, the line of demarcation, after having divided the basin of the Mellicourie from that of the Great Scarcies, shall pass between Bennah and Tambakka, leaving Talla to England and Tamisso to France, and shall approach the 10th degree of north latitude, including in the French zone the country of the Houbbous, and in the English zone Soulimaniah and Falabah.

The line shall stop at the intersection of the 13th degree of longitude west of Paris (10° 40' of Greenwich) as marked on the French map, and of the 10th degree of latitude.

II

ARRANGEMENT OF BOUNDARY BETWEEN FRENCH AND LIBERIAN POSSESSIONS, DECEMBER 8, 1892

Art. I.—On the Ivory Coast and in the interior, the boundary line between the Republic of Liberia and the French Possessions shall be laid down as follows, in conformity with the red line on the map annexed to the present Arrangement in duplicate and signed, viz. :

1. The thalweg of the River Cavally, as far as a point situated at a point about 20 miles to the south of its confluence with the

River Fodédougou-Ba, at the intersection of the parallel $6^{\circ} 30'$ N. Lat. and the meridian $9^{\circ} 12'$ of W. Long.¹

2. The parallel passing through the said point of intersection until it meets the meridian 10° Long. W. of Paris,² it being, in any case, understood that the basin of the Grand Sesters shall belong to Liberia, and the Basin of the Fodédougou-Ba shall belong to France.

3. The meridian of 10° until it meets the parallel 7° N. Lat.; from this point the boundary shall run in a straight line to the point of intersection of the meridian 11° Long.³ and the parallel passing through Tembi Counda, it being understood that the town of Barmaquinola and the town of Mahomadou shall belong to the Republic of Liberia, Naalah and Mousardou remaining, on the other hand, to France.

4. The boundary shall then run in a westerly direction along this same parallel until it meets on the meridian 13° Long. W. of Paris⁴ the Anglo-French boundary of Sierra Leone. This line shall, in any case, secure to France the whole Basin of the Niger and its affluents.

III

AGREEMENT BETWEEN FRANCE AND LIBERIA FOR THE SETTLEMENT OF THE FRONTIER BETWEEN FRENCH WEST AFRICA AND LIBERIA, SEPTEMBER 18, 1907.

Art. I.—La frontière franco-libérienne serait constituée par :

1. La rive gauche de la rivière Makona, depuis l'entrée de cette rivière dans le Sierra Leone jusqu'à un point à déterminer à environ 5 kilomètres au sud de Befosso;

2. Une ligne partant de ce dernier point et se dirigeant vers le sud-est en laissant au nord les villages suivants : Koutoumai, Kissi-Kouroumai, Soundébou, N'Zapa, N'Zébéla, Koïama, Banguédou, et allant rejoindre une source de la rivière Nuon ou d'un de ses affluents à déterminer sur place, au maximum à 10 kilomètres au sud et dans le voisinage de Lola.

Dans cette section de frontière, le tracé à délimiter devra éviter de séparer les villages d'une même tribu, sous-tribu ou groupe-ment et utiliser autant que possible des lignes topographiques naturelles telles que le cours de ruisseaux et de rivières;

¹ $6^{\circ} 52'$ W. of Greenwich.

² $7^{\circ} 40'$ W. of Greenwich.

³ $8^{\circ} 40'$ W. of Greenwich.

⁴ $10^{\circ} 40'$ W. of Greenwich.

3. La rive droite de la rivière Nuon jusqu'à son confluent avec le Cavally;

4. La rive droite du Cavally jusqu'à la mer.

Dans le cas où la rivière Nuon ne serait pas un affluent du Cavally, la rive droite du Nuon ne formerait la frontière que jusqu'aux environs de Toulepleu; à hauteur et au sud de la banlieue de ce village la frontière serait tracée entre le Nuon et le Cavally dans la direction générale du parallèle de ce point, mais de manière à ne pas séparer les villages d'une même tribu, sous-tribu ou groupement et à utiliser les lignes topographiques naturelles; à partir de l'intersection de ce parallèle avec la rivière Cavally, la frontière serait constituée par la rive droite de la rivière Cavally jusqu'à la mer.

IV

CONVENTION BETWEEN FRANCE AND PORTUGAL RELATIVE TO THE DELIMITATION OF THEIR RESPECTIVE POSSESSIONS IN WEST AFRICA, MAY 12, 1886

Art. I.—In Guinea, the frontier which shall separate the Portuguese from the French possessions, will follow, in accordance with the tracing upon Map I, which is annexed to the present Convention:—

* * * * *

In the east, the frontier will follow the meridian of 16° west¹ from the $12^{\circ} 40'$ parallel of north latitude to the $11^{\circ} 40'$ parallel north latitude:—

In the south, the frontier will follow a line starting from the mouth of the River Cajet, which lies between the Island of Catack (which will belong to Portugal) and the Island of Tristão (which will belong to France), and keeping, as far as the nature of the land permits, at an equal distance between the Rio Componi (Tabati) and the Rio Cassini, then between the northern branch of the Rio Componi (Tabati) and at first the southern branch of the Rio Cassini (tributary of the Kacondo), afterwards the Rio Grande, until it reaches the point where the 16th meridian of west longitude cuts the parallel $11^{\circ} 40'$ of north latitude.

Portugal will possess all the islands included between the meridian of Cape Roxo, the coast, and the southern boundary formed by a line following the thalweg of the River Cajet, and

¹ $13^{\circ} 40'$ W. of Greenwich.

afterwards turning towards the south-west across the Passe des Pilots, where it reaches $10^{\circ} 40'$ north latitude, and follows it as far as the meridian of Cape Roxo.

Art. II.—His Majesty the King of Portugal and Algarves recognises the French Protectorate over the territories of Fouta-Djallon, such as it was established by the Treaties concluded in 1881 between the Government of the French Republic and the Almamys of Fouta-Djallon.

The Government of the French Republic, on its side, binds itself not to attempt to exercise influence within the limits assigned to Portuguese Guinea by Article I of the present Convention. They further bind themselves not to modify the treatment which has always been extended to Portuguese subjects by the Almamys of Fouta-Djallon.

STATISTICS

TABLE I.¹—EXPORTS, IMPORTS,² AND TOTAL TRADE.

—	1900.	1901.	1902.	1903.	1904.
	£	£	£	£	£
Exports ..	403,515	309,184	450,156	563,630	547,009
Imports ..	497,665	292,857	505,649	717,719	592,081
Total ..	901,180	602,041	955,805	1,281,349	1,139,090
—	1905.	1906.	1907.	1908.	1909.
	£	£	£	£	£
Exports ..	654,946	684,931	639,590	631,514	774,746
Imports ..	756,993	645,475	653,769	570,138	916,821
Total ..	1,411,939	1,330,406	1,293,359	1,201,652	1,691,567
—	1910.	1911.	1912.	1913.	1914.
	£	£	£	£	£
Exports ..	732,256	784,434	802,305	665,790	456,121
Imports ..	1,182,511	733,492	770,975	776,528	369,527
Total ..	1,914,767	1,517,926	1,573,280	1,442,318	825,648
<i>Annual Averages.</i>					
—	1900-04.	1905-09.	1910-14.	Mean.	
	£	£	£	£	£
Exports	454,699	677,145	688,181	606,675	
Imports	521,195	708,639	766,606	665,480	
Total	975,894	1,385,784	1,454,787	1,272,155	

¹ Authority: *Statistiques du Commerce des Colonies Françaises*.
Conversion at the rate of 25 fr. to £1.

² Excluding bullion and specie.

TABLE II.—PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF EXPORT AND IMPORT.

Exports.	Annual Averages:			Mean.	Percent- age.	Imports. ²	Annual Averages.			Mean.	Percent- age.
	1900-04.	1905-09.	1910-14.				1900-04.	1905-09.	1910-14.		
Rubber	347,423	515,660	460,096	441,060	72·69	Textiles	200,061	270,010	339,193	£	40·53
Live-stock	38,619	52,290	53,464	48,124	7·93	Metal goods	80,937	103,188	76,959	£	13·03
Palm kernels	20,811	26,732	50,050	32,531	5·36	Farinaceous substances	39,841	54,258	55,216	£	7·47
Hides	8,869	23,346	58,546	30,254	4·98	Rubber, kola nuts, &c.	25,993	39,546	24,262	£	4·50
Gum copal	9,225	13,744	10,960	11,310	1·87	Liquors	22,258	26,213	31,549	£	4·01
Ground-nuts	5,735	4,641	13,176	7,851	1·30	Metals	9,527	37,945	32,086	£	4·00
Sesame seed	3,033	5,685	5,516	4,761	·80	Groceries, tobacco, &c.	19,020	22,649	28,702	£	3·54
Various animal products	1,638	2,188	6,444	3,423	·56	Building materials, coal, and oil	11,191	23,281	27,999	£	3·13
Kola-nuts	3,161	2,474	2,212	2,616	·43	Arms and ammunition	16,068	21,699	5,585	£	2·16
Ivory	1,728	2,143	3,523	2,465	·40	Chemicals	11,411	11,643	16,387	£	1·97
Gold	638	564	5,804	2,335	·39	Glassware, &c.	10,372	9,657	9,273	£	1·47
Palm oil	1,946	1,632	2,263	1,947	·32	Live-stock and animal products	8,292	9,176	10,654	£	1·40
Other domestic produce	3,097	6,398	5,498	4,997	·83	Timber, &c.	5,633	7,122	5,587	£	·92
Total domestic produce	445,943	657,497	677,582	593,674	97·86	Boots, shoes, and leather goods	4,111	5,232	6,720	£	·82
Re-exports	8,756	19,648	10,599	13,001	2·14	Paper & paper goods	2,038	4,680	4,988	£	·59
						Miscellaneous	54,442	62,340	92,446	£	10·46
Total exports	454,699	677,145	688,181	606,675	100·00	Total imports	521,195	708,639	766,606	£	100·00

¹ Authority: *Statistiques du Commerce des Colonies Françaises*. Conversion at the rate of 25 fr. to £1. ² Excluding bullion and specie.

TABLE III.—TRADE WITH THE PRINCIPAL COUNTRIES.

	Exports. ²				Imports.				Total Trade.	
	Annual Averages.			Per-centage.	Annual Averages.			Per-centage.	Mean.	Per-centage.
	1900-04.	1905-09.	1910-14.		1900-04.	1905-09.	1910-14.			
	£	£	£		£	£	£		£	
France ..	74,619	240,479	329,011	36·17	179,840	312,460	311,375	40·26	432,595	38·32
French Colonies ..	5,387	2,251	21	·41	2,210	9,780	16,859	1·45	12,153	·97
United Kingdom ..	206,532	212,256	149,189	31·89	210,433	256,055	292,890	38·04	442,452	35·14
Germany ..	107,887	185,308	137,448	21·36	77,980	58,861	51,600	9·45	189,628	15·06
Sierra Leone ..	30,697	41,076	53,364	7·03	9,710	14,087	14,897	1·94	54,593	4·34
Liberia ..	6,074	14,420	3,721	1·36	14,474	28,437	12,572	2·74	26,566	2·11
Other Countries ..	14,997	11,707	4,828	1·78	26,548	29,009	66,413	6·12	51,167	4·06
Total ..	445,943	657,497	677,582	100·00	521,195	708,639	766,806	100·00	1,259,154	100·00

¹ Authority: *Statistiques du Commerce des Colonies Françaises*. Conversion at the rate of 25 fr. to £1.

² Domestic produce only.

³ Including the United States, which supplied imports to the value of £9,419 in 1900-04, £12,001 in 1905-09, £14,072 in 1910-14, mean, £11,831. In 1910-14 Holland supplied imports to the value of £15,338, Belgium supplied them to the value of £12,166, and Italy supplied them to the value of £4,136. Separate figures for the latter countries are not available prior to 1908.

TABLE IV.¹—EXPORTS²: COUNTRIES OF DESTINATION.

	Annual Averages.			Mean.	Percentage of Mean Total Export.
	1900-04.	1905-09.	1910-14.		
France—	£	£	£	£	
Rubber	62,588	221,272	274,346	186,069	42
Hides	3,655	9,563	27,052	13,423	44
Ground-nuts	4,363	3,030	11,557	6,317	80
Sesame seeds	2,241	5,563	4,854	4,219	88
Miscellaneous	1,772	1,051	11,202	4,675	..
Total	74,619	240,479	329,011	214,703	..
United Kingdom—					
Rubber	186,826	191,572	109,730	162,710	37
Gum copal	8,923	13,656	10,155	10,911	96
Palm kernels	5,601	3,313	11,204	6,706	21
Hides	2,604	1,431	9,625	4,553	15
Miscellaneous	2,578	2,284	8,475	4,446	..
Total	206,532	212,256	149,189	189,326	..
Germany—					
Rubber	88,438	98,222	75,782	87,481	20
Palm kernels	14,817	23,300	38,082	25,400	78
Hides	2,483	11,786	20,100	11,456	37
Miscellaneous	1,949	2,000	3,484	2,477	..
Total	107,687	135,308	137,448	126,814	..
Sierra Leone—					
Live-stock	26,436	35,508	50,076	37,340	79
Rubber	2,373	2,674	59	1,702	†
Ground-nuts	685	1,073	1,243	1,000	12
Miscellaneous	1,203	1,821	1,987	1,670	..
Total	30,697	41,076	53,364	41,712	..
Liberia—					
Live-stock	4,689	11,446	2,243	6,126	13
Miscellaneous	1,385	2,974	1,478	1,946	..
Total	6,074	14,420	3,721	8,072	..

¹ Authority: *Statistiques du Commerce des Colonies Françaises*. Conversion at the rate of 25 fr. to £1.² Domestic produce only.

TABLE V.1—IMPORTS: COUNTRIES WHENCE SHIPPED.

	Annual Average.			Mean.	Percentage of Mean Total Import.
	1900-04.	1905-09.	1910-14.		
France—	£	£	£	£	
Metal goods	65,714	83,173	56,288	68,392	79
Textiles	16,150	40,127	51,219	35,832	13
Farinaceous substances ..	24,849	40,539	40,313	35,234	71
Metals	3,991	33,080	24,920	20,664	78
Liquors	10,214	17,570	21,221	16,385	61
Building materials, coal, and oil	7,007	16,915	14,128	12,683	61
Groceries and tobacco ..	4,528	8,228	11,316	8,024	34
Miscellaneous	47,387	72,828	91,970	70,728	..
Total	179,840	312,460	311,375	267,892	..
United Kingdom—					
Textiles	157,546	204,306	233,117	198,323	73
Chemicals	6,876	8,688	10,005	8,523	65
Metal goods	6,054	10,843	7,762	8,230	9
Groceries and tobacco ..	7,177	5,855	8,817	7,283	31
Metals	4,683	3,691	4,706	4,360	16
Farinaceous substances ..	6,186	3,784	2,874	4,281	9
Building materials, coal, and oil	826	1,635	5,638	2,700	13
Liquors	2,047	1,197	1,089	1,444	5
Miscellaneous	19,038	16,056	18,882	17,982	..
Total	210,433	256,055	292,890	253,126	..
Germany—					
Textiles	19,476	12,546	17,215	16,412	6
Metal goods	6,242	7,756	8,822	7,607	9
Arms and ammunition ..	9,377	8,650	584	6,204	43
Liquors	8,035	6,000	3,679	5,905	22
Glass, &c... ..	5,455	4,739	4,782	4,992	51
Farinaceous substances ..	4,725	1,065	2,404	2,731	6
Groceries and tobacco ..	3,654	1,608	631	1,964	8
Chemicals	3,176	1,510	647	1,778	13
Miscellaneous	17,840	14,988	12,836	15,221	..
Total	77,980	58,861	51,600	62,814	..
Liberia—					
Kola nuts, &c.	13,612	20,693	1,244	11,850	} 60
Palm oil, rubber, &c. ..	369	7,391	11,100	6,287	
Miscellaneous	493	353	228	357	
Total	14,474	28,437	12,572	18,494	..

¹ Authority: *Statistiques du Commerce des Colonies Françaises*. Conversion at the rate of 25 fr. to £1.

TABLE V.¹—IMPORTS: COUNTRIES WHENCE SHIPPED
(continued).

	Annual Average.			Mean.	Percentage of Mean Total Import.
	1900-04.	1905-09.	1910-14.		
Sierra Leone—	£	£	£	£	
Farinaceous substances ..	2,209	4,821	4,828	3,786	8
Textiles	3,290	2,035	2,405	2,576	1
Palm oil, rubber, kola nuts, &c.	1,073	4,909	5,491	3,824	13
Miscellaneous	3,138	2,272	2,673	2,695	..
Total	9,710	14,037	14,897	12,881	..
United States—					
Groceries and tobacco ..	2,892	5,363	5,917	4,694	20
Building materials, coal, oil, &c.	2,333	2,587	6,399	3,773	18
Miscellaneous	4,284	4,051	1,756	3,364	..
Total	9,419	12,001	14,073	11,831	..

¹ Authority: *Statistiques du Commerce des Colonies Françaises*. Conversion at the rate of 25 fr. to £1.

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(See *French West Africa*, No. 100 of this series,
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MAPS

French Guinea is covered by the War Office map of West Africa (G.S.G.S. 2434), on the scale 1 : 6,336,000; 1903 (additions 1914, boundaries corrected 1919); also by sheets 58-70 and 59 (old numbering) of the War Office map of Africa, G.S.G.S. 1539; also by a map, "French Guinea," on the scale of 1 : 2,500,000, issued by the Intelligence Department of the Naval Staff, March 1919, in connexion with this series.

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I. GEOGRAPHY PHYSICAL AND POLITICAL

(1) POSITION AND FRONTIERS

THE French colony of the Ivory Coast is situated on the north coast of the Gulf of Guinea, and extends inland for some 350 miles as far as the Niger basin. It lies between $10^{\circ} 20'$ and $4^{\circ} 20'$ north latitude and $8^{\circ} 50'$ and $2^{\circ} 50'$ west longitude, and occupies an area of about 125,000 square miles. The colony marches on the east with the British colony of the Gold Coast, on the north with the French colony of Upper Senegal and Niger, and on the west with Liberia and French Guinea.

The frontier towards the Gold Coast, as defined in a Memorandum contained in Notes exchanged May 11-15, 1905, is a line running in a general north and south direction, following well-marked natural features only in the northern and southern parts of its course, along the Volta and Tano rivers. The frontier towards Liberia, defined in the act of delimitation of January 13, 1911, is also a line with a general north and south direction, following the right bank of the lower Kavalli, and then crossing to the upper Nuon (Nipue). The boundaries between the Ivory Coast and French Guinea on the west, and between the Ivory Coast and Upper Senegal and Niger on the north, are described in the volumes of this series on *French Guinea* (No. 103) and *Upper Senegal and Niger* (No. 107) respectively.

(2) SURFACE, COAST, AND RIVER SYSTEMS

Surface

The surface of the colony is, on the whole, very uniform, and may be divided into the three following areas: firstly, the coastal region; secondly, the main

portion of the colony between the coastal region and the northern frontier, with the exception of, thirdly, the mountain massifs of the west central district.

The coastal region is divided into two parts. West of Fresco the coast is high and rocky, and immediately behind it the country begins its gradual slope upwards to the interior. To the east the conditions are entirely different, as the shore is low, monotonous, and sandy. Behind the shore lies a series of lagoons, which stretch for nearly 200 miles parallel to the coast, and extend in places nearly twenty miles inland. Their northern shores, which seem to represent an ancient coast-line, are steep and broken into rocky promontories, behind which the country rises to the interior.

The rest of the colony, with the exception of the massifs of the west central region, shows no very distinctive orographic features, and the ground rises by a succession of slopes towards the Niger watershed. There are a few isolated elevations, such as Nyenokwe, in the south-west, and the Komono peak, in the north-east, and a good deal of broken, hilly country in various parts, as, for example, round Bonduku. The most important characteristic of this area is the primeval forest, which has a mean width of nearly 200 miles, and covers about two-fifths of the whole surface of the colony. Between the courses of the Bandama and the Nzi, however, its depth is reduced to not more than seventy miles, and this district forms a kind of transition between the forest and the savannah, of which the northern half of the colony consists.

In the centre of the western side of the colony the country becomes mountainous. Near the meeting-point of the frontiers of the Ivory Coast, French Guinea, and Liberia is the isolated massif of Mount Nimba, which rises abruptly in the neighbourhood of Nzo to over 3,000 ft., and stretches westward outside the colony for some thirty miles. South-east of this massif, between the Kavalli and the Sassandra, and extending between about $7^{\circ} 20'$ and $7^{\circ} 50'$ north

latitude, is a confused mountain zone, with summits ranging from 2,500 to 4,500 ft.

Coast

The coast-line of the colony has a length of about 340 miles. As has been mentioned above, the western half is steep, the eastern low, consisting of a sandy foreshore backed by lagoons. The only permanent openings are found near Assini, at the mouth of the Komoe, and at the mouth of the Bandama. The lagoons are separated by banks and dotted with small islands and peninsulas.

River Systems

The rivers of the Ivory Coast are divided between two systems: that of the Niger, to which belong only insignificant portions of rivers in the extreme north; and that of the coast, consisting of the rivers which run north and south in approximately parallel courses into the Gulf of Guinea, together with some unimportant streams flowing east to the Volta.

The chief rivers of the second system, named from west to east, are the Kavalli, the Sassandra, the Bandama, with its tributary the Nzi, and the Komoe.

(3) CLIMATE

The climate is of the characteristically equatorial type. In general, there are four clearly-marked seasons, two rainy and two dry, though in the western part of the coastal region there appears to be no dry season. The greater dry season lasts from December to March, and the greater rains from April to July; the lesser dry season comes in August and September, and the lesser rains in October and November. In the mountain massif of the central west there is said to be a good deal of rain even between December and March. The amount of rainfall diminishes from south-west to

north-east. The annual rainfall on the coast is about 80 inches, but at Bonduku it is only 50 to 60.

The temperature is higher in the forest region than on the coast, where it is mitigated by the regular south-west winds, and still higher in the savannahs of the north. Observations are for the most part lacking, but the mean annual temperature on the coast, at Grand Bassam and Lahu, is about 81° F. (27° C.), and in the savannah region, at Kong and Bonduku, 81°–82° F. (27°–28° C.). The highest temperatures occur in the greater dry season. On the coast there is a great drop in temperature during the lesser dry season. The prevailing winds are from the south-west, but the north-easterly *harmattan* sometimes makes itself felt.

(4) SANITARY CONDITIONS

The health conditions of the southern half of the colony are in many places very bad, and no European should spend more than two or three years at a time in these regions. The most prevalent diseases are malaria, maladies of the respiratory organs, and dysentery. Small-pox is on the decline. The northern savannah districts appear to be more healthy.

A disease to which the natives are peculiarly subject is *filariasis*, caused by the so-called Guinea-worm. Europeans, presumably because of their greater care in obtaining pure water, seem to escape.

(5) RACE AND LANGUAGE

The native inhabitants of the Ivory Coast appear to be all Sudanese negroes. There is a vast number of tribes and sub-tribes known, and as yet no very scientific principle of classification has been arrived at. The usual method of classification is partly ethnical and partly geographical, and separates the natives as follows: (1) the Agni group; (2) the Mande group; (3) the tribes of the lagoons; and (4) the tribes of the south-west.

(1) The *Agnis*, who inhabit the east of the country, belong to the same family as the Ashantis. They are believed to have settled in the colony in the middle of the eighteenth century, dispossessing or absorbing the *Senufo*, *Guro*, and *Abbe* populations previously dwelling there. They are said to be divided into fifteen tribes, of which the largest and most homogeneous are the *Baules*.

(2) The *Mande* name is used in this classification to cover two quite distinct groups, the supposedly autochthonous *Senufos* and the conquering *Mande-Julas*. These peoples cover the whole of the northern part of the colony up to the edge of the forest region.

(3) The peoples of the lagoons do not come into any single ethnic grouping. Between Grand Bassam and Fresco twelve large groups are distinguished, mostly if not all related to the Ashanti family, though it is possible that the *Abures* represent an older stratum of the population. There are innumerable sub-tribes known.

(4) The peoples of the south-west are similarly classed together for convenience. The best known are the *Krus*. Some of the tribes of this group are apparently related to the Mandes.

The languages and dialects spoken by these tribes and their subdivisions are very varied. A peculiarity of the Sudan languages, which presumably also applies to those spoken by the population of the Ivory Coast, is the great difference of vocabulary in languages possessing a similar syntax. There is no mention of any general trade language that is spoken all over the colony, although a certain amount of pidgin English is spoken in the south-west.

(6) POPULATION

Distribution

The area of the colony is estimated at between 120,000 and 125,000 square miles, and the native population (1911) at 1,365,425, which gives a density of

some 11-12 inhabitants per square mile. The distribution over various parts of the area is not easy to arrive at. The forest is said to be thinly populated, which agrees with what is found elsewhere in Africa; on the other hand, it does not appear that the northern *cercles* have yet recovered from the ravages of the chief Samori (see p. 8), and if, leaving the two *cercles* of Baule out of account, the figures for the *cercles* north of 8° north latitude are compared with those south of it, it appears that the savannah is even more thinly populated than the forest. As for Baule itself, it accounts for about one-fifth of the whole population, and is the most densely inhabited part of the colony.

A map of French West Africa, published in 1911, shows the density of the population in various parts of the colony. The basis of the calculation is not stated, but the figures are as follows: the north-west, 6-12 inhabitants per square mile; the north-east, 3-6, and the south-west slightly less; the extreme south-east corner, 6-12; Baule, 20-30; and the lower parts of the Komoe and Bandama basins, from the Komoe to about half-way between the Bandama and Sassandra, 12-20 per square mile.

Towns and Villages

There are no very large towns; in 1912 Lahu had over 3,000 inhabitants, Grand Bassam nearly that number. Assini, Abwaso (Aboisso), and Tiassale had 1,000-1,500. In the north Bonduku has nearly 3,000 inhabitants, and there are agglomerations of 1,000-3,000 inhabitants at several places in the *cercle* of Kong. The large settlements destroyed by Samori's bands have not recovered.

II. POLITICAL HISTORY

CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY

- 1787-1868 Conclusion of various treaties of protection with chiefs on the Ivory Coast.
- 1875-76 Proposal to cede French rights on the coast in part exchange for the Gambia.
- 1884 Effective occupation of Grand Bassam and Assini.
- 1888-89 Binger's expedition in the northern bend of the Niger: treaties with Bonduku, &c.
- 1889 Boundary with Gold Coast fixed up to 9° N. latitude (August 10).
- 1891 Declaration of protectorate over coast from Lahu to the Kavalli.
Boundary arrangement with Liberia (December 8).
- 1893 Further boundary arrangement with Gold Coast (July 12).
- 1904 Incorporation of colony in Government-General of French West Africa.
- 1911 Final settlement of boundary with Liberia.

(1) *Formation of the Colony*

FROM 1787 onwards a number of treaties concluded by the French with petty rulers on the Ivory Coast established some degree of French domination over that coast, the chief centres of French influence being, from west to east, Tabu (Dabou), Grand Bassam (1842), and Assini (1843). Little importance was, however, attached to these possessions; and in 1866 France offered spontaneously to cede them in exchange for the Gambia,¹ a proposal declined by Great Britain. In 1875 Lord Carnarvon stated that the French had almost withdrawn from these settlements, though a vague protectorate over the native chiefs was still asserted.² In the same year the British Colonial Office proposed, and France was willing to consider,

¹ H.C. Paper No. 444 of 1870, pp. 8, 9

² C. 1409, p. 25.

the cession to Great Britain of such rights as France might possess in part compensation for the cession of the Gambia. Subsequent negotiations proved abortive, owing to opposition in Great Britain and in the Gambia; but French interest in the coast revived, and in 1884 Grand Bassam and Assini were effectively occupied.

The interior had so far remained untouched; but the mission of Captain Binger, who in 1888 started to explore the countries in the northern bend of the Niger, resulted in a series of treaties, which brought under French protection large areas, including Bonduku (November 13, 1888), and Kong (January 10, 1889), thus securing to the Ivory Coast full access to the interior. This was finally subdued by a series of expeditions, ending with the capture of the chief Samori in 1898.

(2) *Boundary Agreements*

It remained to determine the boundaries with the Gold Coast on the east and with Liberia on the west. The first was settled in principle up to 9° N. lat. by Article III of the Arrangement of August 10, 1889, and defined in detail by an Arrangement of July 12, 1893. The extension of the line northward was delayed until 1898, when the Convention of June 14, 1898, finally settled the extent of the French Sudan; the boundary was finally determined by an exchange of Notes, May 11-15, 1905. On the side of Liberia a long series of treaties with native chiefs was entered into in 1890-91, largely confirming earlier treaties, and on October 26, 1891, formal intimation in accordance with the Berlin Act (Article XXXIV) was made by France that she had assumed a protectorate over the whole coast from Lahu to the Kavalli river.

The tribes on the Ivory Coast had been in close contact with British traders, and would probably have been ready to accept a British protectorate; but no exception was raised by the British Government to the

action of France, though it was intimated that the British Government did not intend to prejudice by their assent the claim of Liberia to the country between the San Pedro and the Kavalli rivers, which was in dispute between the two Powers. The British Government, however, raised the question of the duties to be levied on the coast thus taken possession of. By the Arrangement of 1889 France had engaged to impose certain definite rates of duty on liquor, cotton goods, and tobacco imported into Assini, a precaution necessary in the interest of the Gold Coast, and Great Britain now asked that the same rates should be imposed on imports into the new territory, a claim finally accepted by France for the time being.¹

The Convention of 1898, however, established a new regime. By Article IX of that instrument, confirmed by the Declaration of March 21, 1899, it was agreed that in a vast area, including on the British side Nigeria and the Gold Coast, and on the French the Ivory Coast and Dahomey, British subjects and protected persons, and French citizens and protected persons, should be entitled to national treatment in the territory of the other Power in all matters of river navigation, commerce, tariff, and fiscal treatment, and of taxes of all kinds for a period of 30 years from the date of the ratification of the Convention (June 13, 1899). At the expiry of that period the Arrangement might be terminated by either party on one year's notice. Further boundary questions with Liberia were disposed of by Agreements of September 18, 1907, and January 13, 1911.²

(3) *Internal Affairs*

While in the north of the territory no special difficulty has been experienced in controlling the tribes accustomed to organized rule, the existence in the south

¹ C. 6701, pp. 8 and 9. France notified on December 10, 1891, a further set of treaties with chiefs on the Ivory Coast.

² *State Papers*, cvii, 797-800.

of a forest belt 200 miles wide has rendered more difficult the reduction of the country to order. A rising of the Abbe in January 1910 was followed by the destruction of 300 Senegalese troops and the death of one European, and the investment of the post of Agboville. These events determined the Governor-General on vigorous action; and since then the pacification of the country and the disarmament of the tribes has been satisfactorily carried out, and the effective power of the administration has been greatly extended. By the Decree of October 18, 1904, the Ivory Coast became an integral part of the Government-General of French West Africa.

III. SOCIAL AND POLITICAL CONDITIONS

(See *French West Africa*, No. 100 of this series, pp. 3-14.)

IV. ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

(A) MEANS OF COMMUNICATION

(1) INTERNAL

(a) *Roads, Caravan Routes, and Paths*

CONSIDERABLE efforts have been made in recent years to improve the road system in the Ivory Coast. A carriage road has been constructed from Grand Bassam on the coast by Bingerville, the capital, to Abiye, the southern terminus of the railway. The colony is well provided with caravan routes, on which rest-houses, with a fixed tariff, have been provided at intervals for the convenience of travellers. These routes can all be used by bicycles, carts, and light-wheeled vehicles of any sort, and certain sections can be used by small motor-cars.

Bwake, the present northern terminus of the railway, is a centre from which several important routes radiate. Three of these lead north into Upper Senegal and Niger, one running by Koroko (Korhogo) to Sikasso, another by Odien to Buguni, and a third by Dabakala and Kong to Bobo-Dioulasso (Bobo-Jilaso). One route goes west to Bela in French Guinea, by Segala and Tuba. Others connect Bwake with Bondoukou in the north-east and Gagnoa in the south-west. Another route to French Guinea starts from Tafié and runs by Koroko and Odien. Upper Senegal and Niger can also be reached by a route from Buna in the north-east, and by one from Segala in the west, by way of Bundiali. Among important routes within the colony may be noted one serving the whole eastern side, from Abwaso (Aboisso) in the south to Buna in the north, by Zarana

and Bonduku; others from Tiassale north to Bwake and east to Abenguru; and others connecting Dimbokro on the railway with Bouafle to the north-west and Bonduku to the north-east.

Besides these main routes there are numerous paths, which have been cleared of undergrowth. Porterage is used on these for the transport of goods, and also persists to some extent on the main routes.

(b) *Rivers, Lagoons, and Canals*

The colony is well supplied with rivers, although the volume of water is small in the dry season. The rivers are, however, of little use for navigation, owing to the existence of rapids; but they can for the most part be used for floating timber.

The *Bia*, which flows into the Aby lagoon, is navigable by steamers to Abwaso, a distance of $7\frac{1}{2}$ miles. The improvement of this river was under consideration for some years, and in the year 1908-9 a dam was constructed at the mouth.

The *Komoe*, which drains the eastern part of the colony, is navigable by steamers drawing 3 ft. as far as Alepe (25 miles), and by canoes to Malamalasso.

The *Bandama*, which, with its confluent the Red and White Bandama and the Nzi, drains one-third of the colony, is navigable by small steamers up to Ahuacre, and in the season of high water to Brubru (56 miles), while canoes can ascend to Tiassale (68 miles).

The *Sassandra* is navigable by canoes as far as Subre, but there are dangerous rapids.

The *Kavalli* is navigable by small steamers to Tiboto.

An important means of communication in the south-east of the colony is afforded by the lagoons, which stretch along the shore for 186 miles, from the village of Fresco to the frontier of the Gold Coast. For the development of these waterways a comprehensive scheme has been planned. It is intended to join the Ebrie and Aby lagoons by a canal, to connect the

lagoons of Bassam and Assini by another canal, and to deepen the existing Fresco canal.

(c) *Railway*

The railway of the Ivory Coast is part of the general scheme for railway construction, intended eventually to link together the colonies forming French West Africa. It provides an outlet to the coast for the products of the interior, and connects with Abiyeon on the Ebrie lagoon the district between the Bandama and the Nzi, where there is a break in the dense forest which covers the southern part of the colony.

The construction of the line was begun in 1904, a sum of 10,000,000 francs having been provided by the loan of 1903. In 1912 the line reached its present terminus, Bwake. The length of the line is now 194 miles, and the cost has been 31,614,000 francs, or 163,060 francs (£6,522) per km. The gauge is 1 metre (3 ft. 3 $\frac{3}{8}$ in.).

The line has been surveyed for a further distance of 183 miles, to Komoe, and provision has been made by a loan of 167,000,000 francs for the construction of 132 miles of this route, as far as Diendana. It is intended ultimately to continue the line to Bobo-Diulasso in Upper Senegal and Niger, to meet the projected extensions of the Kayes—Niger and Konakri—Kankan railways. There is also to be a branch line westward from Dimbokro to Daloa, which it is intended ultimately to prolong to meet the proposed branch of the Konakri—Kankan railway, the first section of which is to run from Kankan to Bela.

The most important stations on the present railway are Agboville, Dimbokro, and Bwake; from the two last named radiate the caravan routes already described.

(d) *Posts, Telegraphs, and Telephones*

The postal system of the Ivory Coast is under the control of the General Government of French West Africa, but is separately administered and financed. In 1915 there were 38 post offices in the colony. Along

the coast posts are carried by two lagoon steamers; while the interior is served partly by the railway and partly by runners and canoes.

Of the 38 post offices 33 did telegraphic business. The lines run from Bingerville to Bonduku, westwards to Dabakala, and northwards *via* Kong to join the telegraphic system of Upper Senegal and Niger at Bobo-Diulasso. From Dabakala a line runs west *via* Bwake, Segela and Tuba to join the French Guinea system at Bela. Other lines connect Odien, Tuba, and Logwale; Sassandra, Subre, Daloa, and Bouafle; and all the coast towns from Tabu to Assini.

There are telephone systems in 23 of the chief towns and villages.

(2) EXTERNAL

(a) Ports

There are no natural harbours on the Ivory Coast. All the ports are open roadsteads, with deep water close in shore. Landing is effected by means of surf boats, but is rendered very difficult by the constant heavy surf. The chief ports are Assini, Grand Bassam, Jacquerville, Grand Lahu, Sassandra, and Tabu. Drevin, San Pedro, Bereby, and Blieron are of secondary importance. Between Drevin and Tabu there are dangerous rocks.

The question of the construction of an artificial harbour was under consideration for several years. The original idea was to utilize Port Bluet, opposite Abijeau, on the southern side of the Ebrie lagoon, and thus within easy reach of the railway. It was, however, found impossible to create a harbour at this point, and attention has recently been transferred to Grand Bassam, the one port at which there is at present a wharf.

Assini is at the extremity of the neck of land between the Aby lagoon and the sea. Vessels anchor in about 10 fathoms, and load and unload by means of boats belonging to the business houses. The exports by this

port in 1913 amounted to 1,921,906 francs in value, and the imports to 2,332,124 francs.

Grand Bassam stands at the mouth of the Komoe, at the entrance to the Ebrie lagoon. There is good anchorage in 7-8 fathoms, but there is sometimes a strong current from the River Akba. A wharf, built on iron pillars, was constructed in 1897; it is 730 ft. in length, and is raised 16 ft. above the level of the sea; the depth of water at the end is about 5 fathoms. There are at present four steam cranes, and a fifth is to be added, together with new sheds and storehouses. Cargo is loaded from and discharged into surf boats, of which the port possesses nineteen. In good weather 550 tons of cargo can be embarked in a day.

Various improvements of the port and its communications are under consideration. The Governor-General of French West Africa approved in 1912 a scheme for the construction of two jetties almost parallel to one another and 980 yds. apart, and for a canal 12 miles long across Ebrie lagoon to enable vessels to reach anchorage at Abiyejan.

Grand Bassam was formerly the capital of the colony, and is by far the most important of the ports. In 1912, out of the total of 390,141 francs representing the duties on the exports from the colony through the ports, 167,187 francs were accounted for by the exports from Grand Bassam; out of a total of 3,000,766 francs for the duties on the imports by the ports, 1,323,704 francs represented the share of Grand Bassam.

Jacquerville (Jackville), south of Ebrie lagoon, to which it is joined by a Decauville line 3 miles in length, has safe anchorage during bad weather in 9-11 fathoms. Vessels load and discharge from the beach. The exports from the port in 1913 amounted to 489,891 francs, and the imports to 1,002,383 francs.

Grand Lahu stands at the mouth of the Bandama river, by which canoes can reach the important trading centre of Tiassale. The town has increased rapidly in importance. Whereas in 1890 it was still merely a small customs station, by 1913 many large commercial houses

had set up branches there, and in that year the value of the exports was 2,211,999 francs, and of the imports 1,605,199 francs.

Sassandra, at the mouth of the river of the same name, has good anchorage. The depth about half a mile from the shore is 6 fathoms. The exports in 1913 amounted in value to 1,200,366 francs, and the imports to 852,182 francs.

Tabu is the most westerly of the ports, with the exception of Blieron at the mouth of the Kavalli river. It has a safe anchorage, and, together with Blieron, provides an outlet for the products of the rich district bordering the Kavalli. In 1913 its exports amounted in value to 308,559 francs, and its imports to 482,010 francs.

(b) *Shipping Lines*

Before the late war the Ivory Coast was served regularly by three French lines, and occasionally by one Belgian and one British line.

The mail steamers of the Compagnie des Chargeurs Réunis called at Tabu and Grand Bassam once a month on their voyages between Le Havre and Bordeaux and the Belgian Congo. The same company had a monthly cargo service from Dunkirk, Le Havre, and Bordeaux to West African ports.

The Société Marseillaise de Navigation Fraissinet et Cie. and Cyprien Fabre et Cie. had each a monthly steamer from Marseilles to the West Coast of Africa, carrying passengers and cargo.

Cargo boats belonging to the Compagnie Belge Maritime du Congo and to Elder, Dempster & Co. used to touch occasionally at Grand Bassam.

(c) *Cable and Wireless Communications*

A cable from Grand Bassam links up the Ivory Coast to the east with Accra in the Gold Coast, Kotonu in Dahomey, and Lagos in Nigeria, and to the west with Freetown in Sierra Leone, Konakri in French Guinea,

and Dakar in Senegal. Telegrams for France may be sent by the French cable from Dakar to Brest, or by the Spanish cable from Dakar *via* St. Louis, Teneriffe and Cadiz.

A wireless station was opened in 1913 at Tabu. Communication is held mainly with ships, but also, by night, with Konakri. It has a range of 150 nautical miles, and its normal wave length is 600 metres.

(B) INDUSTRY

(1) LABOUR

Supply of Labour.—The Ivory Coast is quite unsuited for white labour, and its development depends entirely on the capacity of the natives, who show some promise in agriculture and in exploiting the mineral resources of the country. The Senufos of the north, who are unfortunately not numerous, are described as hard workers, attached to the soil, and though they are not intelligent they are patient and teachable; among them also are found certain groups who have some skill in the working of iron and other metals. The Baules of the central region, which is the most densely populated, are also said to be good agriculturists, and it is probable that they will be able to develop the production of foodstuffs for export. In the south the natives are on the whole disinclined for continuous work, but the Kru tribes of the south-west make good labourers and boatmen, and are very willing to work for hire.

For Government and European undertakings generally the shortage of labour has been serious. Labour is dear, so that the financial success of European plantations is doubtful. One coffee plantation at Elmia was worked inexpensively because when the land was granted a stipulation was made that captive labour should be supplied. Porters can usually be obtained when required, but the rates of pay are high. In the construction of the railway, valuable services were

rendered by the Kulongos of the Bonduku district, who welcomed the French occupation as a deliverance from their neighbouring oppressors the Mandes and Abrons. Labour is also obtainable, as has been seen, from amongst the Kru tribes, but it is far from being plentiful.

Immigration.—For skilled labour the colony is dependent on immigrants, who are recruited from Senegal, Sierra Leone, and the Gold Coast. It is possible, as a rule, to obtain in this way all the labour required, but very high wages are demanded.

Emigration.—A decree of October 1901 regulates the conditions of emigration from the Ivory Coast. No recruiting of labour can take place without the consent of the Lieutenant-Governor, and for each native recruited a passport fee of 100 francs has to be paid.

(2) AGRICULTURE

(a) *Products of Commercial Value*

(i.) *Vegetable Products.*—Of the *cereals*, maize is cultivated everywhere, two harvests being obtained each year, and export has begun; millet is cultivated in districts outside the forest zone, and the large millet (*sorghum*) forms the staple food of some tribes in the north. Rice is grown in the west and south.

Cocoa grows well in the Ivory Coast, and the extent of the plantations has rapidly increased. In 1913 there were 361,380 cocoa trees on the plantations, of which 33,000 were bearing. In 1915 there were 1,677,000 trees on the native plantations, of which 159,000 were bearing, and 248,760 trees on the thirteen European plantations, 29,660 of which were bearing. The Administration has established centres for instructing the natives in the methods of fermenting the beans. The amount of the export rose from 55 kg. in 1900 to 47,000 kg. in 1913 and to 186,000 kg. in 1916.

Coffee grows wild in many parts, and *Coffea liberica* has been cultivated. The most important plantation is

at Elmia, and produces about 70 tons of coffee yearly. The natives of the upper Kavalli basin carry on trade in coffee with Liberia. The exports by sea are insignificant.

Copra has been prepared in increasing quantities of recent years, but not to anything like the extent which should be possible. Coco-nut palms are cultivated round nearly all the villages of the forest, and especially on the borders of the lagoons and in a region up to 100 km. from the coast.

Cotton is an important crop in the northern and north-western districts. It is cultivated, as in the United States, without irrigation. The principal centres of trade are Bwake, Dimbokro, and Yamusukro. The Administration is anxious to encourage the production.

Ground-nuts are of minor importance in the Ivory Coast, but their cultivation is increasing. The nuts are heavy, so that hitherto the trade has been hampered by inadequate means of communication and transport; it is hoped, however, that the extension of the railway and the improvement of the ports will result in increased production.

Kapok is obtained from trees of the *Eriodendron* and *Bombax* species, which abound in both the forest and savannah zones. The fibre, which is used for lifebelts, for stuffing cushions, and for similar purposes, is prepared by the natives as in Upper Senegal and Niger. The amount of the export increased from 2,725 kg. in 1913 to 43,000 kg. in 1916.

Kola nuts are obtained from wild trees in the forest zone, and in the northern districts the tree is cultivated. It is most plentiful in the *cercles* of Nzi-Komoe, Bonduku, Indenie, Assini, and the lagoons. The nuts are usually exported fresh, although the export of nuts dried in the colony has been tried. The greater part of the trade goes north across the land frontiers, 500 tons being the average quantity exported annually. The export by the ports was 85 tons in 1913, 149 tons in 1914, and 46 tons in 1915.

Palm oil and palm kernels are among the most valuable natural products. Groves of oil-palms form an almost continuous band along the coast, especially near the lagoons. In the forest zone, the trees occur only round the villages, by the rivers, or in clearings. Further north they become denser again, but are less productive there than near the sea. The native methods of preparation are primitive and unsatisfactory, and the introduction of European methods has begun. Four factories have been established, but their activities are still on a small scale; of these the most important is at Drevin in the *cercle* of Lower Sassandra; two are in the neighbourhood of Bingerville and one on the Komoe, not far from Grand Bassam. Agricultural mutual aid societies have been created, partly in order to enable the natives to purchase implements and machinery. At Bingerville there is an experimental station where the production and preparation of palm oil are being studied.

The exports, which amounted to 4,812 tons of oil and 1,247 tons of nuts in 1896, reached a total of 6,104 tons of oil and 6,949 tons of nuts in 1913, while the figures for 1916 were 6,776 tons of oil and 8,000 tons of nuts. These totals represent only a fraction of the possible trade. Lack of communications has hitherto hampered production in the interior; in the neighbourhood of the railway, exploitation was in 1916 just beginning, and a considerable increase in trade is likely to follow the construction of the branch line from Dimbokro to Daloa.

Rubber is obtained chiefly from three species of creeper (*Landolphia heudelotii*, *Landolphia owariensis*, and *Clitandra elastica*), and one tree (*Funtumia elastica*). *Funtumia elastica* abounds in the forest zone, over a region stretching northwards for 80–100 km. from the coast. Agricultural stations have been established, where experiments are made with *Funtumia elastica* and other rubber-producing plants. The natives often mix with the latex obtained from the *Funtumia elastica* that taken from the *Ficus vogelii*.

The value of rubber in the Ivory Coast, as in other parts of Africa, has been adversely affected by the competition of plantation rubber from the Far East and of rubber substitutes. The Administration has not, however, yet abandoned the encouragement of rubber-growing, and has formed schools at Assikasso and Bwake to instruct the natives in the most economical methods of tapping and preparing the rubber.

Shea butter is obtained in the north-east of the district round Koroko, where the shea tree is abundant; it is, however, unknown in the forest zone, the most southerly point at which it grows being the northern portion of the district of Buake. The export of the butter increased from $1\frac{1}{2}$ tons in 1912 to 40 tons in 1916.

Vegetable ivory can be obtained from the nuts of the *rônier* and *doum* palms. The *rônier* palm grows in the savannah region, and forests of it exist in the basins of the upper Volta and the upper Komoe, where the natives have established plantations. The *doum* palm exists in great numbers, but no use has yet been made of the vegetable ivory to be had from it. The production of ivory is now very small.

Among miscellaneous products may be mentioned *manioc*, which forms the staple food of some tribes in the forest area; *yams*, which are cultivated in the north and furnish the chief food of the Baule tribes; *plantains*, which are grown in the east; and *sesame*, which is but little cultivated.

(ii.) *Live-stock*.—There are very few horses and asses, except in the extreme north, and even there they do not breed and are of little use for transport purposes. Cattle, sheep, goats, pigs, and fowls are found in small numbers both in the coast region and north of the forest. The cattle are small, but sturdy; their meat is good, but they are poor milkers. The sheep are kept for slaughter only, as they do not produce wool. The methods employed in stock-raising are primitive; the animals are generally left to themselves, and are in a semi-wild state. Two experimental stations have,

however, been established for the breeding of sheep and cattle, and it is hoped that they will spread the knowledge of more scientific methods.

(b) *Forestry*

The extensive forests of the Ivory Coast contain not only such products as palm oil, rubber, and others already described (see above, pp. 18-21), but also valuable timber.

From the commercial standpoint the most important of the woods is mahogany. About 40,000 tons of this wood are obtained annually, mainly from the *Khaya ivorensis*, known amongst the natives as dukuma. There are ten other species capable of furnishing similar timber. In the absence of sufficient means of communication and transport, it has been impossible hitherto to exploit trees more than two or three kilometres distant from the lagoons, the rivers or the railway. Transport would be facilitated if the wood were cut to measure and sawn within the colony. The Congress of Civil Engineering, held at Paris in 1918, decided in favour of this change, and of the establishment of Canadian sawmills. Another reform desirable is the use of machinery for cutting the trees and stripping the bark. As most parts of the colony are sparsely populated, the introduction of machinery will be indispensable if the area of exploitation is extended.

Until recently mahogany was the only wood exported, and the amount of other woods exported is still very small. There are, however, a large number of species which would repay exploitation. Hard timber suitable for the manufacture of railway sleepers and wagons is provided by the *azobe* and the *edum*, which are similar to teak. A forest mission in 1908 reported that these trees cover 18 and 5 per cent. of the forest land respectively. *Nete*, covering 20 per cent., and *songare*, covering 6 per cent., are said to be comparable to the oak, and to be useful for joinery and carpentry. The *fakpo*, *avodire*, *okume*, and *badi* are lighter woods suitable for joinery and cabinet-making.

Permits to exploit timber must be obtained from the Lieutenant-Governor of the colony. They are granted for areas of 2,500 hectares, and convey the right to exploit all the trees of the forest except oil-palms, rubber, kola, and shea trees, coco-nut and *rônier* palms, and copal trees. The Governor may also grant a permit of exploration tenable for three months, and not renewable.

(c) *Land Tenure*

The native system of land tenure varies amongst the different tribes of the colony. Generally speaking, however, the land occupied by a tribe is regarded as belonging in common to the whole tribe, the chief having the right to apportion it to various villages, whose chiefs in turn apportion it to families. As a rule the possession of land by the family is not absolute, as it extends only to the cultivated products, natural products such as rubber and mahogany being held in common by all the inhabitants of the village. Amongst some tribes private ownership is established by the occupation and cultivation of land, permission to occupy being obtained in the first instance from the chief of the tribe. In some cases this private ownership is also limited to the cultivated products of the land, and continues only so long as the land remains in cultivation; in other cases the land becomes the absolute property of the cultivator, who can transmit it to his descendants.

As in the other colonies forming French West Africa, land vacant and without an owner belongs to the State, and the profits therefrom are assigned as a subvention to the local budget. It is to be noted that in the district of Kong native custom regards all vacant land as belonging to the chief of the tribe; there is therefore, strictly speaking, in this district no land without an owner. Concessions of land are granted to individuals under the system established by the ordinance of September 26, 1907. Grants of land up to 200 hectares in extent are made by the Lieutenant-

Governor; from 201 to 2,000 hectares by the Governor-General; over 2,000 hectares by the Minister for the Colonies on the recommendation of the Commission of Colonial Concessions. For urban lands heavy obligations and charges are incurred; for rural lands a small annual payment is required during a certain period of years, at the end of which, if the exploitation of the land is adjudged satisfactory, ownership is established and no further charge is made. In the case of land required for cocoa plantations payment is exacted for the first year only, provided the land is developed in accordance with a fixed standard. Such land becomes the absolute property of the holder of the concession at the end of a term of five years.

(3) FISHERIES

The lagoons and rivers are plentifully supplied with fish. The most common edible varieties are carp and pike. Sardines, herrings, soles and tunny are obtained off the sea-coast.

On the banks of the lagoons and on the coast, fishing and the drying of fish constitute an important native industry. On the lagoons the fish are caught either by large barricades built of raphia leaves or by nets and lines. In the rivers a combination of these two methods of fishing is employed. Sea-fishing is carried on in large canoes resembling whale boats, and in small boats propelled by one man.

Trade in fish is carried on particularly in the districts of Lahu and Agneby, the centres being Tiassale and Grand Lahu. The fish is caught in the Lahu lagoon by the natives and sent, usually by canoe, to the market at Tiassale, whence it is distributed by the routes which meet at the town throughout the south-western part of the colony.

(4) MINERALS

The mineral wealth of the Ivory Coast was highly estimated in the early years of the present century. There has hitherto, however, been no proof of the exis-

tence of deposits large enough to justify these expectations.

Gold has been found in the districts of Sanwi, Indenie, Baule, Assikasso, Memle and Bonduku. Exploitation is carried on by the natives in various parts. In Kokumbo, in the district of Baule, gold is found on the hillsides at a height of about 500 ft.; shafts 80–100 ft. in depth are made and the blocks of auriferous rock are brought by the men to the villages, where they are crushed. The gold is then washed out by women. In other districts, Indenie for example, gold is found in the alluvium of the beds of rivers. The work of extraction is frequently done by women, and the average daily profit is variously estimated as 0·15 fr. and 0·75 fr., the rate exacted by the chief on whose land the search is made having been deducted. The average export for the years 1890–1897 was stated to be 155 kilogrammes; but the estimated amount extracted by the natives in 1914 was only 20 kilogrammes. There is some exploitation by Europeans, but it is as yet on a very small scale.

Other minerals exist in various parts of the colony. Copper is found in the districts of Sanwi and Baule, and garnet in the region of Grabo. Iron is fairly widespread, although the quantity is nowhere great; it occurs as magnetite in the district of the upper Kavalli. Fine sand impregnated with bitumen, and a limestone containing an asphaltic material, have been found in the extreme south-eastern corner of the colony. Syenite rocks containing compounds of titanium are reported in the Kinta mountains, and mica in the neighbourhood of the lower Sassandra. Finally, in certain parts, mainly in the centre of the colony, decomposition of the granite has given rise to pockets of practically pure kaolin.

(5) MANUFACTURES

In almost all parts of the colony some weaving is carried on, especially in Baule and the northern

districts. Here cotton is cultivated, and the manufacture and dyeing of cloth is a widespread occupation amongst the women.

In most districts the natives make agricultural implements, spears, and knives from the iron which they obtain from the laterite. Jewellery of various kinds is produced. Canoes, chairs, doors, and coffins are made in all parts. Pottery is manufactured by the women.

There is likely to be some development in industries connected with the provision of materials for the construction of European houses. A brickyard has been in existence for some time near Grand Bassam, and the presence of clay throughout the colony promises success to similar undertakings elsewhere.

There are no European manufactures in the colony.

(C) COMMERCE

(1) DOMESTIC

(a) *Principal Branches of Trade*

The commerce of the interior is still very limited, the greater part of the needs of the natives being supplied from the immediate neighbourhood of their homes. Such commerce as exists is carried on by licensed hawkers and by caravans; the railway is utilised chiefly for the export and import trade. In large centres such as Abwaso, Alepe, Tiassale and Bwake there are warehouses where the travelling merchants can replenish their stocks. The chief articles of commerce are salt, textiles, tobacco, kola nuts, cattle, sheep, goats, and poultry, and, in the southern districts, fish.

(b) *Towns, Markets, &c.*¹

In most parts of the colony markets are held in the towns and villages, but the districts served are, as a

¹ For the ports, see also *supra*, pp. 14-16.

rule, very small. The most important markets are at places well served by caravan routes, by the railway or by the lagoon system; these are Bwake, Tumodi, Kodisfobi, Bonduku, Buna, Alepe, Tiassale and Abwaso. The last three are the chief centres for the sale of rubber. There are also towns whose commercial importance is due to the existence of a transit trade between the coast and the interior; these are Abijeau, at the head of the railway on the Ebrie lagoon; Agboville, in the rich and rapidly developing district of Attie; and Dimbokro, the junction of the railway and caravan routes.

The most important trading centre of the colony is, however, the port of Grand Bassam. Numerous business houses, native and European, are represented in the town. The population is nearly 3,000, and in 1913 there were 115 Europeans. The measures taken by the Government since the year 1904 have somewhat improved the health conditions of the town, which formerly suffered greatly from the scourge of yellow fever.

Assini and Abwaso are the commercial centres for the south-east corner of the colony. Assini is served by the sea and the lagoons, and possesses telegraphic and telephonic communication. Abwaso is on the caravan routes from Indenie, Bonduku, and the French Sudan, along which rubber is carried. Between 1898 and the rubber crisis of 1912, the number of carriers bringing rubber to Abwaso in the course of a year rose from 3,000 to 45,000; the town was transformed; the native buildings disappeared and European houses, wide streets and carefully laid out plantations took their place. There is little trade in palm oil in this district, and the decline in the rubber traffic may diminish the importance of the town.

Bonduku is the most important of the towns served solely by caravans. To this centre are brought from the north oxen, sheep, shea butter, dried fish, and goods of native manufacture; while from the south come imported goods, such as gunpowder, textiles, and

pearls; from the surrounding district rubber is collected for export southwards.

Bingerville, the capital, on the Ebrie lagoon, is a modern town, containing the headquarters of most of the public services of the colony. In 1913 there were 90 European inhabitants. The town stands at the head of the routes from Abijeau and Alepe, and, by means of the lagoon, it has a wide connection along the coast. Its commercial importance has developed rapidly.

Tiassale, on the Bandama river, has become a commercial centre of the first order. It has a large number of native merchants, and there are branches of important European trading houses. It is one of the largest markets for the rubber of the interior and the fish of the coast region.

(c) Organizations to promote Trade and Commerce

A Chamber of Commerce was instituted at Grand Bassam in 1908 by an ordinance of the Governor-General of French West Africa. Its function is to give advice on proposed commercial regulations, and to supply the Administration with any information required as to the conditions of trade and local customs.

(d) Foreign Interests

The most important of the business houses trading in the Ivory Coast are French. Among them are the Compagnie Française de l'Afrique Occidentale, which has representatives in almost all the commercial centres of the colony, the Compagnie de Kong, and the Compagnie Commerciale de la Côte d'Afrique. Apart from these, British houses occupy the first place. The chief firms are R. & W. King and W. D. Woodin & Co., which have branches distributed almost as widely as those of the Compagnie Française de l'Afrique Occidentale; others are Jacob Williams, with branches at Assini and Tate, Elder, Dempster & Co. at Grand Lahu, and Reder & Son at Jacqueville.

(2) FOREIGN

The following table shows the value of the foreign trade passing through the ports in the years 1904-13 :—

—	Exports.	Imports.
	Francs.	Francs.
1904	10,286,743	15,583,382
1905	7,635,753	13,895,337
1906	9,609,984	11,671,768
1907	10,910,537	14,314,267
1908	10,854,190	14,223,203
1909	11,787,852	11,192,242
1910	15,749,700	16,049,454
1911	18,242,832	20,566,940
1912	17,615,775	17,535,048
1913	16,401,815	18,154,499

The main reason for the fluctuation in the exports is the varying demand for rubber, mahogany, and palm oil in the European markets. There are immense reserves of these products in the forests of the Ivory Coast, and the amount of the export is determined by the prices offered. The fluctuation of the import figures is caused chiefly by accidental over-stocking of the markets in some years, and by variations in the native demands following upon the state of the export trade. In 1909, for example, the price of rubber was very low during the first part of the year, and in consequence the demands made by the native hawkers on the stocks of Abwaso and Tiassale were small; hence there was a tendency to decline in the import trade. At the beginning of November, however, the rubber situation improved considerably, and the improvement continued to the end of the year. As a result the storehouses were completely cleared, and it was necessary in 1910 to increase the imports in order to replenish the stocks. The Government imports in connection with the railway and other public works vary greatly in amount from year to year.

Apart from these fluctuations, the situation before
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the rubber crisis of 1912 was satisfactory. The progress is shown by the following quadrennial averages:—

—	Exports.	Imports.
	Francs.	Francs.
1892-1895	3,969,200	2,644,700
1896-1899	4,989,100	4,652,800
1900-1903	7,234,500	8,032,700
1904-1907	9,610,750	13,861,200
1908-1911	14,158,650	15,507,950

(a) Exports

Quantities and Values.—The depreciation of rubber in the European markets has been continuous since 1912. In the period 1908-1911 rubber represented 55 per cent. of the value of the exports. In 1913 it was still the chief article of export, forming 31 per cent. of the total; it fell, however, in 1914 to 516,738 francs or 6 per cent. The main articles of export other than rubber were in both years mahogany, palm oil, and palm kernels; next in importance came oxen, ivory, ox hides, cocoa, and kola nuts.

The following table¹ shows the average value of the principal articles of export in the period 1908-11, and their value in 1912 and 1913:—

—	1908-11.	1912.	1913.
	(Average) Francs.	Francs.	Francs.
Cocoa	15,214	41,908	67,190
Coffee	57,033	42,509	21,274
Fish	50,070	113,846	69,513
Ivory	153,647	156,864	159,624
Kola nuts	8,126	18,494	48,180
Mahogany	1,636,065	2,896,529	5,012,868
Oxen	5,025	460,000	634,750
Ox hides	5,472	23,601	87,907
Palm kernels	1,212,432	1,767,753	2,496,729
Palm oil	3,152,227	3,727,065	3,022,115
Rubber	7,841,758	8,256,498	5,141,614

¹ Authority: *Statistiques du Commerce des Colonies Françaises: Colonies d'Afrique*. 1908-1913.

The quantities of the four chief products exported in the same years were as follows :—

—	1908-11.	1912.	1913.
	(Average) Kg.	Kg.	Kg.
Mahogany	17,896,921	30,489,783	42,651,829
Palm kernels	5,038,437	6,799,050	6,949,206
Palm oil	6,239,196	6,776,479	6,014,460
Rubber	1,198,881	1,376,083	962,297

Countries of Destination.—France in 1913 was the chief customer of the colony, while in previous years France and the United Kingdom had taken between them by far the greater part of the exports, but the United Kingdom generally had the first place. Germany in 1913, as in former years, came third. The progress of the trade with Germany in the decade preceding the war was considerable.

The following table shows the share of the different countries in the export trade from the Ivory Coast during the period 1908-11 and in the years 1912 and 1913:—

—	1908-11.	1912.	1913.
	(Average) Francs.	Francs.	Francs.
France	5,996,796	6,852,615	6,599,871
French Colonies	1,537	11,872	21,899
Germany	610,679	1,483,808	2,871,701
United Kingdom	7,445,466	8,354,058	6,081,997
Other Countries	104,165	913,422	826,347

Of the four chief products of the colony, France in 1913 took 94 per cent. of the export of palm oil, 35 per cent. of the export of rubber, 26 per cent. of the export of palm kernels, and 24 per cent. of the export of mahogany. The United Kingdom in the same year

took 61 per cent. of the export of mahogany, 60 per cent. of the export of rubber, 3 per cent. of the export of palm oil, and 1 per cent. of that of palm kernels.

(b) *Imports*

Quantities and Values.—The main articles of import in 1913 were cotton goods, rice, metals, machinery, distilled liquors, flour, tobacco, soap, and building materials.

The following table shows the average value of the principal imports in the period 1908–11, and their value in 1912 and 1913:—

—	1908-11.	1912.	1913.
	(Average)		
	Francs.	Francs.	Francs.
Biscuits (ships')	86,589	179,561	166,891
Building materials.. ..	300,758	245,756	239,282
Cotton goods	4,163,854	4,641,578	4,173,471
Flour	161,413	186,818	361,321
Kola nuts	2,653	7,078	4,000
Liquors (distilled)	1,038,615	899,160	728,880
Machinery	734,755	711,653	848,505
Metals	785,241	437,485	850,003
Petrol	134,898	168,585	163,357
Rice.. ..	726,211	955,140	1,157,686
Soap.. ..	105,228	272,106	246,834
Sugar	67,525	105,342	179,409
Tobacco (leaf)	352,705	305,971	280,359
Wine (in barrels)	134,492	169,971	208,534

Countries of Origin.—In 1913 the United Kingdom supplied 71 per cent. of the cotton goods, Germany 10 per cent. and France 9 per cent.; of the rice imported Germany supplied 35 per cent., France 32 per cent. and the United Kingdom 21 per cent.; of the metals Germany supplied 38 per cent., France 23 per cent. and the United Kingdom 21 per cent.; of the machinery France supplied 69 per cent., Germany 16 per cent. and the United Kingdom 14 per cent. In 1913 France took

the first place in the import trade, the United Kingdom came closely second and Germany third.

The following table shows the share of the different countries in the import trade during the period 1908-11 and in the years 1912 and 1913:—

—	1908-11.	1912.	1913.
	(Average)		
	Francs.	Francs.	Francs.
France	5,829,122	6,316,347	6,699,851
French Colonies .. .	21,365	275	39,067
Germany	2,202,379	2,332,764	2,923,430
United Kingdom .. .	6,570,271	7,200,435	6,645,632
Other Countries .. .	884,823	1,684,227	1,846,519

(c) Customs and Tariffs

The ordinary French tariff does not apply to the colonies of French West Africa, in which the duties have been fixed by a series of special decrees. The Ivory Coast lies within the area defined in the Anglo-French Convention of June, 1898, in which an undertaking was given that there should be no differentiation in import duties between goods from France and goods from Great Britain. The majority of goods entering the colony pay an *ad valorem* duty of 10 per cent., rising in the case of arms and ammunition to 20 per cent. Certain articles, notably gunpowder, textiles, salt, tobacco, and wines and spirits, pay specific duties. There are a number of exemptions of the ordinary kind, including live animals, fresh meat, fish, and vegetables, agricultural implements and machinery, grain, seeds, and fertilisers, coal, munitions of war imported by the Administration, and various African products such as rubber, ground-nuts, palm kernels, sesame, and gum copal.

There is an *ad valorem* export duty of 7 per cent. on rubber. Most products from the Ivory Coast on entering France have to pay the duties imposed by the

minimum tariff, but timber and palm oil are exempt, and coffee and cocoa, to an amount fixed annually, are admitted at half the ordinary duty.

(d) *Commercial Treaties*

The Anglo-French Convention of 1898 stipulated that within the territory there defined, of which the Ivory Coast forms part, French and British subjects should enjoy equality of treatment in respect of river navigation, commerce, customs, and taxes of every kind.

(D) FINANCE

(1) *Public Finance*

The finances of the Ivory Coast, like those of other French West African colonies, are dealt with partly under the general budget for French West Africa and partly under the local budget for the colony. The principal expenses provided for in the former are public works and services and charges on the debt, the most important source of revenue being the customs. The local budget provides for all expenditure other than that defrayed by the general government or the Communes. On the credit side, it is assisted by a subsidy from the general government. The most important of the revenues coming within the scope of the local budget is the poll tax, which, owing to the extension of the French occupation and the improvement of the census, rose from 776,993 francs in 1904 to 3,844,628 francs in 1913. It varies from 50 centimes to 5 francs according to the district, and is collected by the native chiefs under the superintendence of French officials. The customs receipts, which fall to the general budget, have increased from 1,955,878 francs in 1903 to 3,405,664 francs in 1913. The Ivory Coast Railway has a separate budget attached to the general budget; in 1910 the revenue and expenditure were respectively 791,373 and 677,350 francs, and in 1913 they were 1,385,090 and 1,169,939 francs.

The details of local revenue and expenditure for 1913 were as follows:—

Revenue

Direct Taxation—	Francs.
Poll Tax	3,844,627.70
Patents and Licences ...	290,962.75
Tax on Arms	25,141
Indirect Taxation—	
Tax on Kola nuts	192,521.40
Other	29,577.50
Posts and Telegraphs ...	212,019.71
Domain Lands and Forests ...	599,113.85
Mines	11,572.44
Grand Bassam Wharf ...	746,000.15
Receipts under former budgets	163,114.62
Subsidy from General Budget	1,900,000
Other receipts	306,552.64
Extraordinary receipts ...	625,940.76
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Total	8,947,144.52
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Expenditure

	Francs.
Contributions and debts due ...	7,655.99
General Administration ...	3,530,602.92
Treasury and Finance Depts. ...	350,857.35
Agriculture	129,291.60
Forestry	63,404.86
Posts and Telegraphs ...	593,447.53
Wireless Telegraphy ...	33,544.13
Public Works and Mines ...	811,005.01
Navigation	63,798.92
Grand Bassam Wharf ...	786,920.15
Education and Poor Relief ...	505,280.93
<i>Dépenses imprévues</i>	67,831.66
Extraordinary Expenditure ...	624,170.64
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Total	7,567,811.69
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A reserve fund has been created for the colony, and on May 31, 1914, amounted to 4,051,461 francs.

(2) *Currency*

French money is the only legal currency, and the import of foreign coin is prohibited, though British sovereigns and half-sovereigns are accepted.

In certain regions the natives still use the money which was current before the French occupation. In the district of Seguela they have the *sombe*, a piece of forged iron. Gold dust is used in Bonduku and Nzi-Komoe and cowries in Kong. In the forest and lagoon regions they use the *manille*, a bronze coin weighing about 145 grammes and worth about 20 centimes. All native money is, however, tending to disappear.

(3) *Banking*

The Banque de l'Afrique Occidentale (see *Senegal*, No. 102 of this series, p. 40) has a branch at Grand Bassam and an agency at Assini.

The Bank of British West Africa had a branch at Grand Bassam, but has been obliged to close it. Owing to the control of silver by the French Government and the prohibition of the import of foreign money, it is out of the question for a British bank to maintain a satisfactory status.

(E) GENERAL REMARKS

At the beginning of the century three main considerations faced the Administration: the establishment of French authority over the tribes; the provision of means of communication in the interior; and the creation of a port accessible not only from the sea but also from the chief centres of domestic trade and of production. Of these the first has been accomplished, the second is on the way to fulfilment with the extension of the railway, the construction of the branch

line, and the improvement of the roads; and as to the third, the works planned in connection with Grand Bassam will at any rate do something to provide an outlet for the heavier products of the colony.

Further, the supply of labour is an important problem, which must be solved if the colony is to be developed. The natural resources are rich; and, although it appears likely that rubber will not regain its importance, other products, such as palm oil and timber, as yet only partially exploited, are ready to take its place.

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I. GEOGRAPHY PHYSICAL AND POLITICAL

(1) POSITION AND FRONTIERS

THE French colony of Dahomey extends for about 450 miles north from the Gulf of Guinea to the Niger. It lies between $6^{\circ} 15'$ and $12^{\circ} 30'$ north latitude and $0^{\circ} 45'$ and $3^{\circ} 50'$ east longitude, and marches with Togoland on the west, Upper Senegal and Niger and the Military Territory of the Niger on the north, and Nigeria on the east. At the coast it is about 75 miles broad, maintains approximately this width as far as 9° north latitude, then widens fanwise, finally narrowing to a pointed end between the Mekru and Niger. Its total area is about 41,400 square miles.

The western frontier was laid down generally in a Convention signed at Paris on July 23, 1897, and was delimited in detail in a Declaration signed at Paris on September 28, 1912. It is an arbitrary line, following natural features only in its southern portion, along the *thalweg* of the Mono.

The northern frontier was fixed by a Decree of March 2, 1907, which transferred a large tract north-west of the Atakora to Upper Senegal. The boundary now starts from the north-eastern corner of Togoland, follows the eleventh parallel of north latitude across the Atakora, and then turns down the Mekru valley to the Niger, which forms the north-eastern frontier.

The eastern frontier was delimited in a report dated at Paris, October 12, 1896. Its direction is, generally speaking, south-westerly, as far as a point just south of the ninth parallel of north latitude, where it meets the Okpara river, follows its valley south for about 100 miles, and then continues south to the sea (see also p. 11).

(2) SURFACE, COAST, AND RIVER SYSTEM

Surface

Dahomey falls into two well-marked natural regions, divided by a transverse watershed coinciding with 10° north latitude.

Lower Dahomey has a flat, sandy shore, with lagoons and mangrove swamps immediately behind it. North of these the country is flat and covered with tropical vegetation to about 50 miles inland, where lies the great swamp known as the Lama Marsh, 6-8 miles broad. Beyond this the ground rises with a gentle and even slope, first forming the Abome-Zanyanado (Zagnanado, Zaonanado) plateau, a wide expanse of savanna country broken by escarpments, its highest point being 700 ft. above sea-level, and then rising to the Delcassé Mountains, a small isolated group of hills (1,575 ft.) dominating the settlement of Carnotville, where the general altitude of the country is 900-1,000 ft. North of this the rise continues till at 10° north latitude the head-waters of the Weme (Ouémé) are reached, and the Weme-Niger watershed is crossed at an altitude of about 1,650 ft. The alluvial soil of the coastal belt is rich and fertile.

Upper Dahomey also consists for the most part of a somewhat featureless plateau, but slopes downwards from south to north and drains northwards into the Niger. Its western portion, however, drains into the Oti and so through Togoland into the Gulf of Guinea. The Atakora Mountains, which run north-east and south-west and divide these two drainage areas, are the northernmost continuation of the Fetish Mountains of Togoland. Northwards this range gradually passes into an elevated plateau bounded by escarpments 1,000 ft. high. The summits of the chain in Dahomey run up to 2,500 ft.

The only other outstanding feature of Upper Dahomey is a group of hills in Borgu, south of Buai (Bouay). They stand 600 ft. above the surrounding plain and reach an altitude of 1,600 ft.

Near the Niger dunes are found, and the country becomes Saharan in aspect.

Coast

The coast-line is about 75 miles long. It consists of a continuous narrow sandbank, almost devoid of vegetation, lying between a shallow and surfy sea to south and a network of lagoons and swamps to north.

The chief lagoons of the coastal belt named from west to east are Great Popo lagoon, Lake Aheme, Lake Nokue, north of Kotonu, and the Porto Novo lagoon. They are practically tideless.

River System

The three main drainage areas are those of the Weme, Niger, and Oti.

The *Weme* (*Ouémé*) rises in the Atakora in 10° north latitude, on the divide between Upper and Lower Dahomey, and flows southward, receiving numerous tributaries on both banks, across the Abomey plateau, to the coastal belt, where it empties itself into the lagoons near Porto Novo. Its total length is 300 miles. Its chief tributary is the Okpara, 190 miles in length.

Parallel with the Weme, and west of it, are two rivers of secondary importance. The Kuffo (*Couffo*) is a small stream draining the Abome plateau and reaching the lagoons near Whydah (*Wida*, *Ouidah*). The Mono is a river of some size. It rises in Togoland, at about 9° north latitude, and from 7° north latitude to its mouth in the coastal lagoon forms the western frontier of Dahomey.

The *Niger* drains the greater part of Upper Dahomey by means of its affluents the Kokigoru, Alibori, and Mekru, all practically dry except in the rains. The Niger itself forms the north-eastern frontier of the colony, and the lower half of the Mekru separates Dahomey from Upper Senegal.

The *Oti*, the main tributary of the Volta, is the

chief river of Togoland, but all its head-waters are in French territory, and one, the Penjari (Pindjéri), draining the western slope of the Atakora, is in Upper Dahomey.

(3) CLIMATE

The climate of Lower Dahomey is equatorial, that of Upper Dahomey Saharan.

In *Lower Dahomey* the mean monthly temperatures vary between 77° F. (25° C.) and 85° F. (29° C.). The hottest months are February, March, and April. At Porto Novo the maximum recorded rarely exceeds 97° F. (36° C.), while the minimum seldom falls below 62° F. (16½° C.).

Lower Dahomey has two dry seasons, the first from December to March, the second in August and September; and two wet seasons, the first from May to July, the second in October and November.

The annual rainfall is erratic, varying from 64 to 125 inches (1,630–3,180 mm.); the mean appears to be about 75 inches (1,910 mm.). There are very heavy dews, and the air is exceedingly damp. Even during the dry season (December to March) the humidity is 37 per cent.

The monsoon blows from March to November, and is then replaced by the *harmattan*, which blows from the north-north-east, and during the month of January brings with it a fine white sand which obscures the sky. During this period the greatest extremes of temperature are observed. In the dry season, the wind from the sea is felt as far inland as Zanyanado. Violent storms generally mark the beginning and end of the different seasons.

In *Upper Dahomey* the temperatures show a considerable variation, the maxima and minima being about 60° F. (33° C.) apart. The lowest minimum recorded (January) is 55° F. (13° C.), the highest maximum (April) 117° F. (47° C.). The mean daily maximum is given as 115° F. (46° C.), but this is almost certainly too high. The region falls within the

hottest portion of the earth's surface, but fresh nights are common at many seasons of the year.

The rainfall is lower and more regular than that of Lower Dahomey. The mean annual rainfall is about 21 inches (540 mm.). The lowest recorded rainfall is about 19 inches (480 mm.), the highest over 23½ inches (600 mm.). The rain falls in storms, from May to the middle of November. During this season the prevailing wind is south-west ; during the dry season the *harmattan* blows from the north-east and east. The humidity of the air is considerably less than in Lower Dahomey, and the *harmattan* produces an intense dryness which materially lowers the temperature during January and February.

In the extreme north the rainfall diminishes in amount, and the rainy season both begins and ends later.

(4) SANITARY CONDITIONS

The climate of Lower Dahomey is decidedly unhealthy for Europeans. The continual high temperature and humidity have a depressing effect ; and, though most of the diseases which are rife among the native population can be avoided, malaria and rheumatism are difficult to escape. The tsetse fly (especially *Glossina palpalis*) is common in the south, and occurs locally in the centre of the country, but is unknown north of the Atakora. Guinea-worm and jiggers are common.

There is a hospital at Porto Novo, and there are ambulance stations with European and native staffs at Kotonu, Whydah, Great Popo, and Paraku.

(5) RACE AND LANGUAGE

Like all districts of the Upper Guinea Coast, Dahomey contains a number of small ethnic groups having little or no obvious relationship to one another. Each group has its own language, often differing radically from those of all its neighbours, while character, manners, and customs vary almost as widely.

Lower Dahomey is mainly populated by a typical

Slave Coast race, the *Fongs* or *Jejs*. These remarkable people once constituted the population of the powerful independent kingdom of Dahomey, whose achievements were only made possible by their fine physical and moral qualities. Their language and civilization are fairly uniform throughout Lower Dahomey, as far north as the ninth degree of latitude. Their language, Fong, is related to the Ewe languages of Lower Togoland and the Chi of Ashanti, and is used as a *lingua franca* over a considerable area.

The *Minas* are a powerfully built people inhabiting the banks of the Mono. They are vigorous and courageous, but not industrious. North of these, in the Mono valley above Attieme (Athiémé), are the *Ajas*, a small, primitive, wild tribe.

There are a good many *Mulattoes* in the coastal region.

The *Nagos* or *Nagots* occupy a large belt in the centre of the colony, from the Nigerian border at Sakete north-west through Savalu. Their district is as large as that inhabited by the Fongs, but they are in every way an inferior race to the latter. They have no centralized organization, a fact which always left them at the mercy of their Fong neighbours, and their civilization is of a primitive type. The *Yorubas* are an immigrant branch of Nagots from Nigeria, who live among the Dahomeyan Nagots without intermarriage or any very close social relation. As Moslems they despise the native Nagot.

The *Mahis* are a small tribe located between the Nagots and the Fongs, south of Savalu. They live by hunting and cultivation.

The *Baribas* are the chief tribe of Upper Dahomey, and occupy most of the colony north of Paraku. They are a powerful and warlike race, distinguished from the southern tribes by their possession of live stock and their use of cavalry in war. They seem now to have completely accepted French rule after a long and determined resistance.

The *Dendis* are the northernmost tribe of Dahomey,

living on the banks of the Niger. They are fanatical Moslems.

Upper Dahomey, like all the neighbouring regions of the western Sudan, contains numbers of *Hausas* and *Fulbes*. The Hausas are mostly migratory ; but the Fulbes are settled in large numbers among the Baribas. They are skilful merchants and strong Mohammedans.

There are about 390 Europeans.

(6) POPULATION

The total population of Dahomey is about 900,000, which gives an average density of 21 per square mile.

Lower Dahomey, which comprises a third of the area of the colony, contains 65 per cent. of the population ; Upper Dahomey, with two-thirds of the area, only 35 per cent. The average densities are thus 50 per square mile in Lower Dahomey, and about 10–12 per square mile in Upper Dahomey.

The whole of the coastal region, especially round Whydah and Porto Novo, and the chief river valleys, are very densely populated. Round Abome again the population is very dense, but falls off with great suddenness to the north. Apart from these areas, there are only a few thickly-populated districts, such as those round Zanyanado (Zagnanado, Zaonanado), Savalu, and Paraku, and a little south of Carnotville. Large tracts of country in the centre and north are almost uninhabited.

The chief towns are Porto Novo (20,000 inhabitants); Abome (12,000); Whydah (Ouidah, Wida, 10,500); Kotonu (2,500); and Great Popo (2,200).

II. POLITICAL HISTORY

CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY

- 1852. Portuguese and French claims to sovereignty at Whydah.
- 1863-64. Brief French protectorate over Porto Novo.
- 1875-76. Proposals to exchange French claims as part compensation for the Gambia.
- 1878. France acquires Kotonu from Dahomey.
- 1884. France asserts protectorate over Porto Novo.
- 1885. French agreement with Germany as to Togo boundary.
- 1889. French agreement with United Kingdom as to Lagos-Porto Novo boundary.
- 1890. Dahomey recognizes French protectorate of Porto Novo and occupation of Kotonu.
- 1892. Dahomey brought under French protection ; coast region under French rule.
- 1894. Coast territory created a French colony.
- 1897. Boundary with Togo definitely agreed upon (July 23).
- 1898. Boundary with Lagos carried to Niger (June 14).
- 1904. Dahomey included in the Government-General of French West Africa.
- 1906. Further definition of boundary with Lagos and Southern Nigeria (October 19).
- 1911. Whole territory becomes the Colony of Dahomey and its Dependencies.
- 1912. Further definition of boundary with Togo (September 28).
- 1914. Delimitation of frontier from coast to Okpara river accepted (February 18).

(1) EARLY HISTORY

THE Portuguese Constitution of April 4, 1838, claimed as Portuguese the fort of Ajuda (i. e. Whydah), on the coast of Dahomey ; and the Portuguese Government formally asserted this claim when a blockade of the coast of Dahomey was proclaimed, with effect from January 1, 1852, by the British Government in the course of operations to suppress the slave-trade. The French Government also protested on the ground that a French merchant, Régis, had a fort there, which had formerly been established by the French Government, and was

still regarded by France as a French possession. The British Government, however, maintained the attitude that the forts in question, like a fort formerly established by Great Britain, were merely commercial establishments separated from the sea by a mile of territory subject to the King of Dahomey; and the blockade was only raised when the King of Dahomey made an agreement against slave-trading.

British consuls who visited the kingdom of Dahomey in January and June 1863 reported the existence of forts of British, French, Portuguese, and Brazilian traders, but not that of any territorial claims. In 1863, however, the French assumed a protectorate of the small kingdom of Porto Novo, and in the following year the King of Dahomey ceded 'la plage du Kotonou'. But at the end of 1864 the French Admiral on the station announced that the protectorate of Porto Novo had ceased to exist,¹ and, though by a treaty of May 19, 1868, the King of Dahomey ceded to France 'le territoire de Kotonou', no effective occupation seems to have been attempted, while on March 7, 1875, Lord Carnarvon stated that the French had no influence or jurisdiction on the coast.

Any claims that France might have had would, however, have been surrendered, had the proposals then under consideration for the transfer of the Gambia to France in return for the renunciation by France of all rights between the River Pongas and Gabun been carried out. Following upon the failure of this negotiation, the French again turned their attention to the coast, and on April 19, 1878, obtained a treaty from the King of Dahomey confirming the cession of Kotonu, the boundaries of which were defined. Effective occupation seems to have been delayed until 1884, when, in connexion with the revival of interest in Africa, France established a protectorate over Porto Novo, and by a treaty of June 10, 1885, acquired Ouatchis, lying between Great Popo and Dahomey.

¹ C. 1409, p. 25.

In 1886 the colony of Benin was formally constituted, and placed under a Resident.

Portugal, however, on the strength of a treaty of August 5, 1885, made formal notification (in accordance with the Berlin Act) of a protectorate of the coast of Dahomey; but this notification was withdrawn on December 22, 1887. The disappearance of Portuguese claims left France free to deal with Dahomey and to settle the boundaries of its territories with the United Kingdom, established at Lagos, and with Germany, which had acquired Togo on July 5, 1884.

(2) INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

France and Dahomey.—On October 3, 1890, the King of Dahomey agreed to recognize the protectorate of France over Porto Novo, and to permit the indefinite occupation of Kotonu on payment of an annual compensation. Disputes soon followed, and, after military occupations and a blockade of the coast, the King was deposed; and, by a proclamation of December 3, 1892, the kingdom was placed under French protection, while Whydah¹ and other coast regions were placed under the direct rule of France. Further difficulties ensued in 1893, and in 1894 the kingdom was divided into two parts, northern and southern, in which petty kings were installed under French protection, while by decree of June 22, 1894, the coast territory was formally erected into a French colony.

In 1911 the ruler of Dahomey, who had continued to intrigue against French rule, was deposed. His territory was divided among petty chiefs under the direct control of the French Resident at Abome, and the whole territory became known as the Colony of Dahomey and its Dependencies.

France and Germany.—By a Protocol of December 2, 1885, France recognized the German protectorate over

¹ The Portuguese, however, retained a military post in the fort of San João Baptista d'Ajuda with the right of access to it from the sea. See *San Thomé and Príncipe*, No. 119 of this series.

Togoland, renounced her own claim on Porto Seguro and Little Popo, and agreed upon a boundary for the territories of the two Powers at the coast. This was completed by a Convention of July 23, 1897, delimiting the whole frontier between Togo and the French territories of Dahomey and the Sudan, and effect was given in detail to this Convention by the Declaration of September 28, 1912.¹

France and the United Kingdom.—The boundary between Porto Novo and Lagos on the coast was defined by Article IV of the Anglo-French Arrangement of August 10, 1889, each Power being accorded full freedom of action on its side of the line indicated. A delimitation of the frontier was agreed upon by boundary commissioners on October 12, 1896, and accepted by Article II of the Convention of June 14, 1898. This Convention recognized at the same time the extension of French influence to a point above Ilo, on the Niger. The continuity of French territory between Dahomey and the Sudan was thus secured, the boundary having been carried only up to 9° N. lat. by the Arrangement of 1889. A precise definition of the boundary from the Gulf of Guinea to the Niger was laid down in an exchange of Notes of October 19, 1906, and the actual delimitation up to the Okpara river was approved by Notes of February 18, 1914.²

¹ *State Papers*, cvi, 1001–8.

² Cd. 7278.

III. SOCIAL AND POLITICAL CONDITIONS¹

By decree of October 18, 1904, Dahomey became part of the Government-General of French West Africa.

Dahomey is included in the area in which, under the Convention of June 14, 1898, British subjects and protected persons are assured of equality of conditions as regards all matters of trade, navigation, and taxation for a period of thirty years from June 13, 1899.

¹ Reference should be made to *French West Africa*, No. 100 of this series.

IV. ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

(A) MEANS OF COMMUNICATION

(1) INTERNAL

(a) *Roads, Paths, and Tracks*

CONSIDERING its present state of development, Dahomey seems to be fairly well provided with roads. Two lines of communication, approximately parallel, run between the coast and the northern frontier, and these are connected by cross-roads.

The most important road northwards starts from Porto Novo, and runs by Zanyanado (Zagnanado, Zaonanado) to Pauignan, and then north-eastward to Agwagon and Save (Shabe).¹ From this point onwards it is a metalled motor-road (Route de l'Est), provided with substantial bridges, running by Paraku (162 kilometres from Save), N'Dali (223 kilometres), Buai, and Kandi (380 kilometres), to Madekale (Mallanville) on the Niger (483 kilometres).

Another line of roads leading northwards starts from Toki (Tori) in the south of the Allada zone, and runs through dense forest and across the Great Swamp to Abome, and then on to Savalu. In the past, the journey northward was continued by winding routes, more or less parallel with the western frontier, by Kaboli (Cabolé), Bassila, Jugu, and Makha to Nagon Kauri (Konkobiri) in Upper Senegal. Now, however, a good motor-road (Route de l'Ouest) has been made to Bassila and Jugu from Agwagon, which is only about 25 km. east of Savalu and is reached by a cross-road.

There are a number of other useful cross-routes. Beginning from the north, the first of these runs from

¹ The section between Zanyanado and Pauignan is marked in the map of Dahomey in the *Annuaire du Gouvernement Général* for 1913-14, but does not appear in the corresponding map in the volume for 1915-16.

Datori on the western frontier right across the Atakora and middle Niger zones, by Makha and Kandi, to the Niger at Ilo. The next to the south connects Bakumbe in the west with Buai on the eastern motor-road. From Jugu routes connect with the same road at N'Dali and Paraku. From Abome a road runs east to Zanyanado and the eastern frontier. From Attieme (Athiémé), in the Mono zone, a road eastward connects with Toki.

These roads are under Government control, and are maintained by the use of forced labour. In most cases the only work necessary is cleaning and clearing from bush, for the surface is unmade, though often hard enough to take light vehicles. The Save-Niger road, or Route de l'Est, and the Agwagon-Jugu road, or Route de l'Ouest, are the only roads of a more elaborate kind.

Since 1912, a regular service of motor-wagons, carrying passengers, mails, and goods, has been in operation along the Route de l'Est. The full journey, including stoppages, occupies two days and six hours. Wagons drawn by oxen are in use on the same road.

Over the greater part of Dahomey, however, goods have still to be carried by native porters, and travellers ride in hammocks borne by four men. This is a slow and costly method of transport, and absorbs labour which might be employed to better advantage. One man can carry between 25 and 30 kilograms, and a day's march may be anything between 25 and 40 km. In the north, horses are used a good deal for riding.

(b) Rivers and Lagoons

River transport is not likely ever to be employed to any considerable extent in Dahomey. All the streams are subject to violent seasonal variations, and none are navigable to any great distance even during the rains.

The chief navigable streams in the south, named from west to east, are the Mono, Kuffo (Couffo), and Weme (Ouémé). The Mono forms the western boundary of Dahomey from about the seventh degree of north latitude to the sea. In the rains it is navigable as far as

Attieme, in the dry season to Vodome (Wadome). The Weme is about 300 miles in length, but even when it is at its highest it is navigable by vessels of light draught only as far as Zanyanado, while in the dry season Dogba is the head of navigation. The remaining streams are of little use as means of communication. In the north, most of the rivers are torrential, but the section of the Niger which forms the north-eastern boundary has 3 ft. of water for six months of the year, and for nine months can be used by small boats.

More important for communication than the rivers are the lagoons which lie parallel with the sea behind the coastal sandbank. They change their size and their outlets constantly. Old natives can remember the time when it was possible to go in a boat from one side of the colony to the other. To-day there are two chief sections. To the west is a long, narrow lagoon, into which the Mono and Kuffo discharge themselves, and upon which Little Popo, Great Popo, and Whydah are situated. Close to this to the north is Lake Aheme. To the east is a larger and more important series of waterways, the main parts of which are Lake Nokue and the Porto Novo lagoon, running all the way from Kotonu to the British port of Lagos in Nigeria.

At Kotonu there is at present an opening from the sea to Lake Nokue, but this channel has constantly changed its character, and was often in the past closed for years at a time. Lake Nokue is about 10 miles long and 5 miles broad, and has a general depth of about 8 to 10 ft., though in the dry season several shoals are covered by less than 3 ft. of water. On its eastern side the lake contracts into a narrow and shallow channel called the Toche, into which the River Weme discharges itself. The Toche leads into the Porto Novo lagoon, on the north shore of which Porto Novo is situated. Only small vessels can reach Porto Novo from Kotonu, though in 1911 work was begun with a view to deepening the channel.

From Porto Novo eastward to the sea, on the other hand, there is an average depth of 3 fathoms,

though in places the channel is narrow and intricate, and there are some dangerous shallows, such as Beshe Flat, where there is only a depth of 6 ft. at low water, and not more than 8 ft. even at high tide.

On these lagoons a brisk traffic is conducted, both by steamers and smaller boats. Since 1912 the Chargeurs Réunis have maintained two regular services. One of these is a rapid mail service between Porto Novo and Lagos, the biggest vessel used being of 170 tons. The other runs between Kotonu and Porto Novo five times a week.

(c) *Railways*

Railway System in General.—The existing railways in Dahomey represent merely the initial stages of a much more ambitious scheme of construction. This forms part of the vast programme of railway connexions between West African colonies with which the French Government has been busy since 1898. If the scheme is carried out, Dahomey will possess 950 km. of railways, which gives an average of 12 km. for every 10,000 inhabitants. One object in view is to give the colony increased opportunities of linking up with the caravan routes across the Sahara.

From June 1900 onwards, section after section of line was laid down in Dahomey, and in 1915 a length of 293 km. was being worked. The railway starts from Kotonu, and runs parallel with the coast to Pahu (26 km.), where a branch 32 km. in length leaves for Whydah and Lake Aheme. The main line turns northward at Pahu, and runs past Allada (58 km.), Pawinyan (Pauignan, 194 km.), and Agwagon (235 km.) to its terminus at Save (261 km.). There are 19 stations and 17 halts on the main line, and 2 stations and 4 halts on the branch. The gauge is 1 metre.

At present traffic between Save and the Niger is conducted along the Route de l'Est by the motor service, but it is intended to carry on the railway to Paraku (440 km.) and then to the Niger at some point between Karimama and Madekale (722 km.). It is

also proposed to bring Jugu, the head of the Route de l'Ouest and a caravan centre, into connexion with the eastern districts by a branch line from Paraku, 120 km. in length. The south-western districts are to be opened up by a line, 47 km. in length, running north from Great Popo to Lokossa, and connected with the main line by a short branch of 15 km. A line is also proposed to connect Kotonu with Porto Novo.

Besides the regular railway, there is a steam tramway of the same gauge, often referred to as the East Dahomey railway, which starts from Porto Novo and runs through a fertile and well-cultivated district to Pobe (76 km.). There is a branch to Sakete (39 km.) at a point 34 km. up the line. The track is of Vignerole rails resting on steel sleepers. The smallest radius of curves is 200 metres, and the steepest gradient 1 in 50. It is estimated that the construction has cost about 53,000 francs per km.

Relations to Government.—The railway was constructed by the colony, but its management has been entrusted to the Compagnie Française des Chemins de Fer au Dahomey, which also has a concession of Kotonu wharf. The tramway is run by the colony.

Financial Considerations.—The financial responsibility for the Dahomey railway falls upon the French Government and affects the General Budget for French West Africa. In 1904, when the Compagnie Française received the concession, it was stipulated that a certain sum should be paid to the company from the receipts of each year. The amount payable is calculated by a formula based upon the total receipts, the length of line open, the train mileage for the year, and the number of passengers and tonnage of goods carried. The Rapport d'Ensemble for 1913 states that the receipts were always insufficient to bear this charge. In 1912 by the formula the company was entitled to 1,291,666 francs, but the actual receipts were 1,172,886 francs only, so that there was a deficit, paid from the General Budget, of 118,780 francs. In 1913 the formula fixed the payment at 1,292,729 francs,

while the receipts amounted to 1,154,734 francs; the deficit was thus 137,995 francs.

The finances of the steam tramway, on the other hand, are controlled by the Colonial Administration, and their annual working is shown in the Local Budget. The tramway receipts in 1912 amounted to 248,847 francs, and expenses to 195,766 francs. In 1913 receipts rose to 267,479 francs and expenses to 318,296 francs, in consequence of the extension to Pobé.

(d) *Posts, Telegraphs, and Telephones*

Dahomey is one of the seven divisions of the general postal system for French West Africa. During 1913 five new post offices were added in the colony, and two suppressed, leaving thirty-one in full working order. Postal business is steadily growing.

The telegraphic system looks extensive on paper; but the service is in practice only moderately efficient. From May to October in Dahomey the air is so highly charged with electricity that communication is often difficult.

Telephone systems are installed in the chief towns.

(2) EXTERNAL

(a) *Ports*

Accommodation.—There are no sheltered harbours on the coast of Dahomey. Places of call along the coast, named from west to east, are Little Popo (in Togoland), Agwe, Great Popo, Whydah, Kotonu, and Porto Novo.

At *Little Popo* (*Anecho*, just over the Togoland border) there is a large native town about a quarter of a mile inland, and a line of storehouses along the beach. For eight months of the year ships can find good anchorage in 6 fathoms, but during the rainy season it is necessary to anchor farther out, in 8 or 9 fathoms, on account of the surf.

At *Agwe*, farther east, there is safe holding-ground in 7 fathoms at a distance of three-quarters of a mile from the shore.

Great Popo, a little east of the Mono river, is built on a narrow strip of sand between the sea and the lagoon. It has a native population of about 20,000, and a small number of European traders. Its importance depends entirely upon the produce of the Mono valley, and is certain to increase when the building of the railway line to Lokossa leads to a more active trade. At present, however, there are few facilities. There is good anchorage in 7 fathoms, and a wharf is to be built.

Whydah (Ouidah, Wida) has few natural advantages ; for the surf is heavier here than farther west, sharks abound, and the town is three miles inland from the little beach station. Anchorage can be had about one mile off shore in 8 fathoms. The business of the port has declined since the railway deflected to Kotonu traffic which used to come by road to Whydah ; but the Dahomey authorities are anxious to keep trade alive there, and in 1913 built Decauville lines between the town and the beach.

Kotonu, whose population in 1915 was stated to be 2,500, is the chief port and a busy trading centre. It is a well-planned town, lying in an angle formed on the south by the sea and on the east by the channel leading to Lake Nokue. There is an iron pier, 208 metres long, with excellent appliances for handling cargo, so that vessels can load and unload in security, despite the surf. Close to this wharf is the terminus of the railway, which runs out westward.

Porto Novo lies east-north-east of Kotonu, on the northern shore of the lagoon of the same name. The navigation between this port and Kotonu on the one hand and Lagos on the other has already been described (p. 16). There is good anchorage in 8 fathoms of water on the western side of the town. The native quarters lie over to the east of the European town. The latter is less regularly planned than Kotonu, but contains many important buildings, since Porto Novo is the capital of Dahomey. The population in 1915 was 20,000, of whom 359 were Europeans. Here are situated the Lieutenant-Governor's chief residence, the

central offices of the chief Government departments, the Bank, the Chamber of Commerce, and many of the principal commercial houses. The town is lighted by electricity, but sanitation is not good, malaria is common, and mosquitoes are very troublesome. In 1913, however, the laying out of a drainage system was begun, and embankments are being made to prevent the accumulation of stagnant water from the overflow of the lagoon.

Nature and Volume of Trade.—Before the war, France took the lead in Dahomey shipping, but Germany was in very close competition. The following table¹ shows the nationality and tonnage of ships entered between 1913 and 1916. The totals include traffic between Porto Novo and Lagos.

<i>Nationality.</i>	1913.		1914.		1915.		1916.	
	<i>No.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>No.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>No.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>No.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>
French .	173	232,664	149	181,835	115	142,121	112	163,164
British .	131	187,297	117	142,771	115	155,539	105	149,705
German .	169	193,382	71 ²	80,037	—	—	—	—
Other Countries	4	4,851	—	—	—	—	—	—
Totals .	477	618,194	337	404,643	230	297,660	217	312,869

It will be seen that in 1913 France was responsible for 37·83 per cent. of the total inward and outward tonnage, Germany for 30·96, England for 30·44. If, instead of taking the tonnage of ships as a basis of comparison, we take the value of the goods they carry, France had 26·47 per cent., England 23·74 per cent., and Germany, with 49·28 per cent., nearly as much as the other two together. The disappearance of German shipping at the outbreak of war was therefore a very serious matter for Dahomey, and it remains to be seen if the French mercantile marine can eventually make profit out of what was for the moment a disaster. It seems likely that the palm-crushing industry will never again be a German monopoly, and since the trade of Dahomey is largely in palm products, German

¹ From the *Bulletin de l'Office Colonial*, December 1915, December 1916, and September 1917.

² In the period before the outbreak of war.

shipping may be unable to regain its former percentage of the total trade.

The bulk of the trade flows through Kotonu, on account of its loading facilities and its railway. Kotonu receives maize, palm products, shea-nuts, copra, and cotton, from the centre and north of the colony, and also to some extent from Porto Novo and the Sakete district served by the tramway. Its exports in 1913 amounted in value to 7,120,010 francs and its imports to 7,176,070 francs. With regard to exports, however, Porto Novo is almost as important, for in 1913 the value of its exports was 6,597,569 francs, though its imports amounted to 4,526,729 francs only. For palm kernels, especially, it is the main channel of export: 10,499,878 kilograms were shipped from Porto Novo in 1913 as against 7,077,804 kilograms sent from Kotonu. The Mono valley trade goes through Great Popo, whose exports in 1913 amounted in value to 2,071,478 francs, while its imports totalled 1,526,088 francs.

(b) Shipping Lines

Before the war, Dahomey was well served by shipping lines. Kotonu was a port of call for the mail steamers of the Chargeurs Réunis, which left Havre for Matadi every twenty-one days. The Compagnie Cyprien Fabre had a monthly service between Marseilles and the African coast, their vessels carrying both passengers and cargo. Another monthly service from Marseilles, of the same kind, was maintained by the Compagnie Fraissinet.

Elder, Dempster & Co. had a weekly mail service between Liverpool and Lagos by their two lines, the African Steamship Company and the British and African Steam Navigation Company. The Dahomey ports were served by these lines and also by the cargo boats of the company, which after the outbreak of war started a direct cargo service between New York and West Africa.

The Woermann Line, Hamburg, had three cargo

services calling monthly at Whydah, Kotonu, and Great Popo. Their mail steamers passed Kotonu twice a month, and would call to take up passengers if there were a sufficient number.

The seaports are linked with the interior by the lagoon service of the Chargeurs Réunis (see p. 16).

(c) *Cable and Wireless Communications*

A French cable connects Kotonu westward with Grand Bassam on the Ivory Coast and south-eastward with Libreville in Gabun. The African Direct Telegraph Company has a cable from Kotonu to Lagos. Cablegrams for Europe are sent by this latter route as far as Konakri in French Guinea, and from that point can, if the senders wish, be dispatched by the French cable to Brest *via* Dakar.

Dahomey has no wireless station.

(B) INDUSTRY

(1) LABOUR

Dahomey is the most populous of the French West African colonies, and hitherto as much labour as was needed has been forthcoming at a cheap rate. Smiths are paid from 2 to 4 francs per day, masons 2 frs. 50 to 4 francs, carpenters 3 francs to 4 frs. 50, and navvies 1 franc to 1 fr. 50 on the coast, and 50 to 60 centimes in the interior. When the railway was being built, there was no difficulty at all in obtaining workmen in sufficient numbers.

Agricultural labour is supplied chiefly by the Fong or Jej race of Lower Dahomey, who are strong, energetic, and obedient, and have applied themselves to agriculture since the French occupation with increasing zeal and success. In this they are contrasted with their neighbours the Minas, along the banks of the Mono. The Minas also have a fine physique, but dislike steady work, though they are skilful in managing surf-boats or handling cargo. The Nagos, in the centre of

the colony, are indolent and cowardly, and the immigrant Yorubas settled among them are attracted to trade rather than to manual labour. The fighting races of the north, the Baribas and Dendis, have no liking for the arts of peace. The former, having submitted to French rule and lost the slaves they used to obtain by raiding, are obliged to do a certain amount of cultivation of the ground, but do as little as possible. Fulbes have settled among them in large numbers, and are intelligent and good traders, but like agriculture no better than the Baribas. The Dendis are stock farmers and horsemen, but are dangerous and suspected of disloyalty. Clerical work for the Government and private firms is done mainly by mulattoes, who are numerous in the coastal region.

Emigration from Dahomey, as well as the movement of labourers from one part of the colony to another, is only effected by permission of the Lieutenant-Governor, and under strict regulations laid down by a decree of October 1902.

(2) AGRICULTURE

(a) *Products of Commercial Value*

(i) *Vegetable products*.—Botanically, Dahomey falls into three zones. The coastal belt, including the Abomey plateau, but excluding the narrow strip of barren shore, is covered with mangrove swamp and tropical forest. In the centre, from the Abome plateau to the Atakora, there is savanna with dry forest and bush. In the extreme north is a region of steppe and thorn-bush.

The most important vegetable product of Dahomey is the oil-palm (*Elaeis guineensis*), which grows wild and is also cultivated. It is estimated that between the coast and Carnotville these trees occupy about 570,000 acres, of which 173,000 are already exploited. North of Carnotville the trees occur only in isolated groups. They give two crops annually, at the end of the two rainy seasons. They are not much affected by

the character of the soil in different districts, but are very dependent on the rainfall.

The natives extract the oil from the pericarp by primitive methods, which prevent them from securing more than about 70 per cent. of the possible yield. The nuts are cracked by hand to obtain the kernels. This is a slow process, and mechanical crackers are gradually coming into use. There are openings for small factories able to prepare oil in a cleaner and more efficient way.

The shea-nut tree (*Butyrospermum parkii*) grows freely in Upper Dahomey, but has not as yet been exploited to any considerable extent. It is hoped that the natives will bring more of the produce to market now that motor transport is available. The 'butter' extracted from the nuts easily becomes rancid, and so has disadvantages for export purposes, but it is hoped that the nuts themselves may be dried and exported, at any rate from districts near the railways and motor-roads.

Ceiba pentandra and *Bombax buonopozense*, both fibre-yielding trees, are represented in Dahomey, but are at present used only locally.

Tobacco and indigo are grown in Upper and Middle Dahomey.

A good many food-stuffs are grown, chiefly for local-consumption. These include maize, yams, manioc, a large and a small millet, beans, and rice in the north. The cultivation of maize is extending rapidly, especially in Lower Dahomey. Native methods of clearing ground for cultivation involve, unfortunately, the destruction of a good deal of virgin forest, and in view of this practice the active development of maize-growing is rather to be deprecated. The crops are already big enough to meet immediate needs, provide a store against a bad season, and still leave a surplus for export. Ground-nuts are cultivated, but are not of much importance for local consumption, and hardly repay export under present conditions, because they flourish best in the regions most remote from the coast. Pine-apples,

oranges, bananas, limes, guavas, and sugar-cane occur in various parts.

Besides the plants which are indigenous, or widely cultivated, various experiments are being made in the introduction of new kinds. Some cotton is grown in the north for local use, and in Middle Dahomey, where the climate is favourable and communications good, cultivation is extending and there is every likelihood of the development of a considerable industry. Of the total amount exported, Savalu zone furnishes about 70 per cent., Save 15 per cent., Abome 10 per cent., and Zanyanado 5 per cent., so that the crop is very unevenly distributed. There are ginneries in Savalu.

The coco-nut palm was introduced many years ago by Portuguese merchants, and of recent years plantations have been made all along the coastal lagoons, especially near Great Popo and Whydah. It was estimated in 1915 that the dense plantations contained about 33,500 trees one-year old, 27,000 from two to five years old, and 11,500 of five years old and upwards. The little copra that has hitherto been exported has been badly prepared. The export, however, is no indication of the extent of cultivation, for a large number of the green nuts are sold in the coast markets for local consumption. Seed is distributed by the Government, prizes are awarded, and every effort is made to induce the natives to make plantations.

Climate and soil seem suitable for growing cocoa, and a good many plantations have been made, largely by men who have lived in the Gold Coast and seen the possibilities of the industry there. Near the rivers, in the zones of Mono, Allada, Zanyanado, and Porto Novo, especially between Pobe and Sakete, experiments have been made on a fairly large scale, and there are also many little native plantations hidden by the bush. It was estimated that in 1915 there were about 100,000 cocoa plants in Dahomey, and that the number in 1916 would be raised to 140,000.

There is also plenty of land suitable for growing kola-nuts. These are often planted between the rows of

cocoa plants. The Guinea kola (*Cola vera*) is being introduced to supplant the less valuable indigenous variety, but is not as yet plentiful.

Rubber is extracted, in small quantities only, from the vine *Landolphia owariensis* near Carnotville and Allada, and the Government has made a few experiments with plantations.

To sum up, it may be said that Dahomey is rich in vegetable products of commercial value, and that they have not as yet been by any means fully exploited. To that end it will be necessary on the one hand to make markets more accessible by improved means of transport and communication, and on the other to instruct and encourage the natives so that they may increase their output and adopt modern methods of cultivation.

(ii) *Live-stock*.—Domestic animals are scarce near the coast owing to the prevalence of the tsetse fly, but in the centre and north stock-raising is carried on extensively. In 1913 the numbers were estimated as follows :

Horses	.	.	1,046	Sheep	.	.	126,682
Donkeys	.	.	112	Goats.	.	.	186,968
Oxen	.	.	117,378	Pigs	.	.	63,200

The cattle of Upper Dahomey are mainly of the small West African type, but near the Niger a more powerful zebu breed exists. The sheep are bred not for their wool, but for their meat, which in some cases is excellent. Goats are not so subject to tsetse attacks as other animals, and can be reared even in Lower Dahomey. They are exported in large numbers to Lagos. Two kinds of horses are bred in Upper Dahomey. Those of Gurma and Mossi are small but robust, while those of the Niger are larger animals, but have less power of endurance. Donkeys are common.

Wild animals are found chiefly in the north. There are a few elephants, eagerly hunted by the natives, but the amount of ivory obtained is negligible.

(b) Methods of Cultivation

Native methods of cultivation are still primitive, and a good many mistakes are made through rashness and inexperience. The wastefulness of the natives is illustrated by their reckless treatment of palm-trees ; the manufacture of palm-wine has now been prohibited, because the trees were destroyed in order to obtain it. The Government has five agricultural stations in the colony, at Porto Novo, Sakete-Bokutu, Kotonu, Tohue, and Niauli. The officials make experimental plantations, distribute seeds and plants, and give advice to the native farmers. The latter, though hard to convince of the desirability of any change, seem to be beginning to appreciate the merits of scientific treatment, and have shown a certain aptitude for agriculture. The district round Porto Novo, for example, is very well cultivated, and in the Whydah coco-nut plantations the natives, in dry seasons, cheerfully perform the regular waterings which are necessary, and in consequence lose very few plants.

(c) Forestry

The most important of the forest trees is the oil-palm, but there are also various trees which furnish hard timber, and an abundance of bamboos. Since the natives turned their attention to maize-growing, a danger has arisen that the clearings will become too numerous and the rainfall be diminished as the forest shrinks. This is particularly noticeable in the Allada zone. In 1900 a decree was issued to regulate forest affairs in Senegal and Dahomey, limiting the number of clearings permitted, providing that in place of trees cut down others of equally valuable kinds must be planted, and prohibiting the felling of trees or the making of clearings on slopes of 35 degrees or more.

(d) Land Tenure

Certain defined portions of the land, such as the sea-shore, the course of navigable streams, railways and roads, fortifications, &c., are public domain. This

may be occupied and built upon by the permission of the Lieutenant-Governor under certain specified conditions. Vacant lands, or lands apparently without an owner, are also the property of the State. For the rest, the land is held by the native chiefs on behalf of their tribes, and cannot be alienated to private owners except with the approval of the Lieutenant-Governor in Council.

(3) FISHERIES

Both the sea and rivers of Dahomey abound in fish; and oysters, of large size but poor flavour, are obtained in the lagoons. The natives of the south are eager fishermen, though their methods are primitive. The value of the fish annually exported to Nigeria and Togoland is more than half a million francs; and enormous quantities of smoked fish are consumed in the colony itself. The northern rivers also contain fish, but the natives there are not such keen fishermen.

(4) MINERALS

Iron ore is found in several forms, especially in Upper Dahomey; there are deposits of titanomagnetite and haematite at Mardaga and Firu in the Atakora, and limonite is worked on the western slopes of the Atakora and in Borgu. From the point of view of European colonists, however, the value of these deposits is highly problematical. They lie at a considerable distance from the coast, and there is no coal in Dahomey. There are deposits of haematite near Abome and of magnetite at Carnotville.

The Atakora also contains bauxite, kaolin (near Jugu), jasper, tourmaline, and garnets. It is not at present known in what quantities these exist or what other minerals may be present.

There is a transverse belt of limestone south of Abome, with which is connected a deposit of phosphate north-west of Whydah.

Building stone (gneiss and grit) is quarried in several parts of Lower Dahomey, especially near Porto Novo, Whydah, Abome, and Zanyanado.

(5) MANUFACTURES

There are no considerable native industries in Dahomey. In the north cloth is woven and dyed, though less of this will be done as European ways are adopted and the *pagnes*, or native waistcloths, go out of use. Leather, which also is dyed, is made into boots and other articles. The women make soap from palm oil or shea butter. In Lower Dahomey, seats, calabashes, and fetishes are made. The fibres of the colony are utilized for making ropes and mats.

(6) POWER

Porto Novo has electric lighting in the streets, the Government offices, and a few public buildings. The current is 230 volts, and the station at present has a Gnôme motor of 22 horse-power, an old Gnôme motor of 11 horse-power, and two Fabius Henrion dynamos, each of 14,400 watts. A much bigger installation will be necessary if the use of the light is to be extended to private consumers.

(C) COMMERCE

(1) DOMESTIC

(a) *Principal Branches of Trade*

Trading activity is naturally confined at present chiefly to the south, where the best means of communication exist. In Middle Dahomey the immigrant Yorubas show a good deal of business capacity, and peddle goods for the European merchants. Hausa traders travel all over Upper Dahomey, where their speech is the regular trade language. Traffic from across the Niger is not considerable; but some caravans come to Ilo and Gaya from Dosso, Fogha, Mahouri, and Sokoto, and proceed to Jugu, while others, from north of Sokoto, cross the river at Say or Niamey and

visit Gurma. They bring an inferior sort of salt, potash, leather goods, ostrich feathers, native stuffs, horses, donkeys, and sheep, and carry back kola-nuts, cloths, and sometimes spirits.

(b) *Towns, Markets, &c.*

Besides the ports, of which particulars have been given on pp. 18-20, no town is specially noticeable except Abome, which used to be the capital of the kingdom of the same name. Its population in 1915 was 12,000. Decauville lines connect the town with the railway station at Bohikon, 12 km. south-east.

In the interior, every station on the railway and every road junction has a certain commercial importance, as forming a centre to which produce can be brought. Jugu is at present the most important caravan centre of Upper Dahomey, and is likely to develop considerably when a motor service is inaugurated on the Route de l'Ouest, and still more when the railway extensions are carried out.

(c) *Organizations to promote Trade and Commerce*

There is a Chamber of Commerce at Porto Novo. Its operations extend over the Porto Novo, Kotonu, Whydah, Mono, Great Popo, and Abome zones.

(d) *Foreign Interests*

Contrary to the rule obtaining in most French possessions, British trade in Dahomey (and in the Ivory Coast) is given equality of treatment with French, for a period of thirty years from the treaty of June 14, 1898. Among the more notable British firms established in Dahomey before the war were John Holt & Co., of Liverpool, and John Walkden & Co., of Manchester. There was before the war a considerable sprinkling of German firms, among the more prominent

being J. K. Vietor & Co., and Noltenius & Paul, both of Bremen, and C. Goedelt of Hamburg. Great Britain has taken advantage of the gap left by the disappearance of the German factories. Among important newcomers to Dahomey are G. B. Ollivant & Co., textile merchants, of Manchester.

(e) *Methods of Economic Penetration*

There seems at present to be little opening in Dahomey for the small capitalist. It is necessary to grant the natives long credit, without which commercial transactions would be almost impossible. The usual method is to supply a native agent on credit with large quantities of trade goods, of which he disposes in the markets of the interior. It may be months before he delivers to his employer the equivalent in palm or other products, and it is not until these reach Europe that the merchant realizes on his transaction.

All the large firms in the past used to have their houses in the coast towns only, but with the extension of the railway branches have been opened farther inland.

Native requirements are rather specialized, and have to be studied carefully. A bale of 100 pieces of cotton must contain at least ten different designs, especially designs varying in shades of colour. Moreover, special widths and lengths are demanded. In supplying the African market, brightness and cheapness are wanted rather than durability.

(2) FOREIGN

The aggregate trade of Dahomey had been steadily on the increase from 1905 onwards, but in 1913 there was a decrease, which naturally was emphasized after the outbreak of war in the following year. The total value had risen from 18,366,673 francs in 1905 to

41,761,415 francs in 1912. In 1913 the total was 31,629,877 francs, which dropped to 25,486,196 francs in 1914.

(a) *Exports*

Quantities and Values.—The total value of the exports from Dahomey in 1913 was 16,477,473 francs. This was lower than the total for any of the three preceding years, in which the amounts were 17,886,254 francs (1910), 21,958,301 francs (1911), and 21,451,317 francs (1912). There was a further decline in 1914 to 13,420,675 francs. During the last twenty years, there have been some notable fluctuations, most of the marked decreases being due probably to bad seasons. As long ago as 1895 the exports amounted in value to 10,521,868 francs, while so recently as 1905 they stood at 7,634,149 francs. There was no very sudden increase from 1900, when railway construction began, but there was a succession of good years between 1908 and 1912. The following table shows the distribution and value of the exports from 1904 to 1914 :¹

Year.	France.	French Colonies.	Other Countries.	Total.
	Francs.	Francs.	Francs.	Francs.
1904	3,757,851	24,043	7,374,115	11,156,009
1905	2,709,656	17,672	4,906,821	7,634,149
1906	2,856,010	25,201	5,625,191	8,506,402
1907	3,906,654	47,952	5,716,377	9,670,983
1908	4,192,213	29,074	7,958,243	12,179,530
1909	4,834,013	14,631	11,501,970	16,350,614
1910	4,564,822	29,687	13,291,745	17,886,254
1911	5,419,872	26,035	16,512,394	21,958,301
1912	4,529,856	73,480	16,847,981	21,451,317
1913	4,109,119	313,591	12,054,763	16,477,473
1914	3,592,408	552,084	9,276,183	13,420,675

The principal articles exported are palm kernels, palm oil, maize, cotton, dried fish, copra, shea-nuts, and shea butter. In 1913 palm products represented more than 87 per cent. of the total export. The

¹ *Statistiques du Commerce des Colonies françaises, 1914.*

following table shows the quantities and values of the principal exports in 1913 and 1914 :

<i>Product.</i>	<i>1913.</i>		<i>1914.</i>	
	<i>Quantity. Kg.</i>	<i>Value. Francs.</i>	<i>Quantity. Kg.</i>	<i>Value. Francs.</i>
Cocoa . . .	7,182	10,651	6,520	9,782
Copra . . .	236,071	82,625	199,237	74,998
Cotton . . .	171,193	213,991	134,586	168,233
Dried fish . . .	308,758	169,816	278,096	152,954
Kola-nuts . . .	11,862	23,724	11,652	23,304
Maize . . .	13,256,163	1,060,493	4,763,137	381,051
Palm kernels . . .	26,371,438	10,103,939	21,238,379	7,655,336
Palm oil . . .	7,971,220	3,886,515	6,622,121	3,593,300
Shea butter . . .	169,841	76,429	78,238	35,208
Shea-nuts . . .	136,850	32,981	340,435	78,029
Smoked shrimps . . .	44,249	52,282	75,362	90,120
Miscellaneous . . .	—	362,648	—	496,636
Totals . . .	—	16,076,094	—	12,758,951

In comparison with palm products, other exports are at present quite secondary, but several products promise well for the future. Maize, for example, reached in 1913 a larger total than in any year since 1908. The figures are as follows : ¹

<i>Year.</i>	<i>Kg.</i>	<i>Year.</i>	<i>Kg.</i>
1908 . . .	19,974,000	1911 . . .	72,038
1909 . . .	9,333,539	1912 . . .	4,062,947
1910 . . .	2,055,349	1913 . . .	13,256,163

The export of raw cotton seems likely to increase. In 1913 Dahomey exported 171,193 kg., value 213,991 francs, as against 132,343 kg., value 165,430 francs, in 1911. There had been a fall to 123,386 kg. in 1912. With regard to the copra export, it should be noted that this is not all local produce, but includes copra prepared from coco-nuts sent in from Nigeria.

Countries of Destination.—Germany was in the past the chief market for Dahomey exports, particularly for palm kernels, as Hamburg had practically a monopoly of the machinery for crushing these and extracting the oil. Palm oil, on the other hand, prepared from the pericarp, was and is exported chiefly to Marseilles.

¹ *Rapport d'Ensemble Annuel*, 1913.

Great Britain has under war conditions taken most of the trade which used to be German, and nut-crushing mills have been set up at Hull and Liverpool. France, on the other hand, has not greatly improved her position. Her share of the export trade has risen from 24 per cent. to 26 per cent., whereas England's has risen from 7 per cent. to 18 per cent.

(b) Imports

Quantities and Values.—The total value of imports for 1914, viz. 12,065,521 francs, was not much higher than the total of twenty years earlier, viz. 10,771,789 francs in 1894. However, in 1912 the imports had reached the record total of 20,310,098 francs, and this was the highest of an ascending series from 1908. Full details are given in the following table :¹

<i>Year.</i>	<i>France. Francs.</i>	<i>French Colonies. Francs.</i>	<i>Other Countries. Francs.</i>	<i>Total. Francs.</i>
1904	1,776,275	360	8,904,603	10,681,238
1905	2,461,276	—	8,271,248	10,732,524
1906	3,762,829	1,239	6,750,145	10,514,213
1907	3,199,537	—	8,455,775	11,655,312
1908	2,598,841	694	8,137,843	10,737,378
1909	2,358,911	1,440	11,855,645	14,215,996
1910	3,841,197	2,326	13,995,230	17,838,753
1911	4,207,116	—	15,466,423	19,673,539
1912	4,389,795	299	15,920,004	20,310,098
1913	3,333,994	114,658	11,703,752	15,152,404
1914	3,197,519	200,473	8,667,529	12,065,521

Among the articles imported are cotton and other textiles, spirits, tobacco, paraffin, sugar, matches, yarn, machinery, glass and crystal, salt, and ready-made garments. Cotton tissues take the first place. The import of ready-made clothing is increasing as the natives adopt European ways. The following table² shows the value of the imports in 1913 :

¹ *Statistiques du Commerce des Colonies françaises*, 1914.

² *Rapport d'Ensemble Annuel* for 1914.

<i>Article.</i>	<i>Value.</i>
	<i>Francs.</i>
Cotton tissues	3,468,723
Flour	129,569
Galvanized and corrugated iron	241,602
Gin and trade spirit	1,271,323
Glass and crystal	229,108
Kola-nuts	180,258
Machinery	271,866
Maize	57,482
Matches	305,884
Paraffin	715,918
Rice	93,818
Salt	214,025
Ships' biscuits	59,034
Soap	154,330
Sugar	316,099
Timber	174,994
Tobacco	893,698
Yarn	292,754
Miscellaneous	6,081,919
Total	15,152,404

Countries of Origin.—Cotton textiles come mainly from Great Britain, which in 1913 supplied goods to the value of 2,884,070 francs. Germany came next, with 214,913 francs, Nigeria third, with 173,519 francs, and France fourth, with 108,740 francs. Cotton imports from Togoland in the same year amounted to 27,214 francs only, but if it had not been for German restrictions they would have been much larger, and in 1914 their value rose to 86,310 francs. Silks and velvets are mainly of German manufacture. Food-stuffs for European consumption, sea salt, and gunpowder, are supplied mainly by France.

(c) *Customs and Tariffs*

The heaviest import duties are charged on tobacco, wines, and spirits. On the 100 kg., leaf tobacco is charged 75 francs, cigars 500 francs, cigarettes 350 francs, and other kinds of manufactured tobacco 230 francs. The duty on wines and spirits varies according to the amount of alcohol they contain, the maximum, for pure alcohol, being 220 francs per hectolitre. On each 100 kg., rock-salt pays 1 fr. 50 c.,

sea salt 1 franc, gunpowder 50 francs. An *ad valorem* duty of 10 per cent. is charged on Guinea cotton, coffee, bananas, and other articles not specifically taxed or exempted, and a 20 per cent. *ad valorem* duty is charged on fire-arms. Among the articles exempted from import duty are living animals, fresh meat, fish, fruit, and vegetables; Government stores; spices, palm kernels, sesame, ground-nuts, kola-nuts, gum copal, and rubber; agricultural machinery and seed corn; building materials; coal; books and scientific instruments.

The only export duty is 7 per cent on rubber.

(D) FINANCE

(1) *Public Finance*

The Local Budget for Dahomey was created in 1889, and in 1904 the financial position was more satisfactory than in any other colony in French West Africa. In that year, however, a general budget for the whole group was superimposed upon the local budgets, and to this were diverted such substantial sources of income as customs duties and railway receipts. Grants can be made from the general to the local budget, however, and Dahomey in this way receives an annual subvention, which amounted in 1913 to 2,000,000 francs. The official return¹ gives the colony's total receipts for that year as 4,923,201 francs, so that 2,923,201 francs came from local sources.

The main source of revenue in Dahomey is a poll-tax, which has been in force since 1899, and in 1913 brought in 1,299,941 francs, or more than 44 per cent. of the total receipts. Every native over ten years of age has to pay this tax, which varies from 1 fr. 25 c. to 3 francs per head according to the district. The receipts from the Porto Novo-Sakete tramway figure in the local budget. Other large items on the credit side were patents and licences (200,000 francs), receipts

¹ *Rapport d'Ensemble Annuel*, 1913.

from the motor transport service (95,000 francs), charges for the right to carry fire-arms (90,000 francs), receipts from Kotonu wharf (80,000 francs), and profits from the sale of domain lands (60,000 francs).

The total expenditure for 1913 was 4,541,769 francs, so that there was a credit balance of 381,432 francs.

(2) *Currency*

Coin is in general use in Dahomey, and even in the interior barter is falling into disfavour. The natives for some years showed a preference for English coin, which was imported in large quantities from Lagos. In 1902, however, a duty of 25 per cent. was imposed on all foreign money entering Dahomey, and the result is that to-day the only currency in circulation is French gold, silver, and copper, and notes of the Banque de l'Afrique Occidentale Française. A decree of 1903 forbade the sale of piastres and other coins likely to be mistaken for French money.

Cowries are also used as a medium of exchange. At Whydah, 50 cowries make a string, 50 strings a head, 4 heads a dollar. Inland the value of the cowrie is lower.

(3) *Banking*

The Banque de l'Afrique Occidentale Française has had a branch at Porto Novo since 1903. The bank is supported by the French Government, and is under Government supervision.

(E) GENERAL REMARKS

There seems no reason why the economic development of Dahomey should not proceed rapidly, if means of transport and communication are provided. The colony has a fertile soil and varied products of considerable value, the output of which can probably be greatly increased as the natives are encouraged by the Government and are given opportunities of learning better agricultural methods. The people of the colony

live peaceably together in spite of differences of race and religion, and there is little serious resistance to French authority. The Government has already done much for trade in starting the railway scheme, improving Kotonu wharf, and getting two roads prepared for motor transport. Communications, however, must be still further improved, if the commercial activity of the coast is to be extended to the interior, and Upper Dahomey brought into closer touch both with the south of the colony and with the caravan routes to the Niger.

APPENDIX

I

ARRANGEMENT CONCERNING THE DELIMITATION OF THE ENGLISH AND FRENCH POSSESSIONS ON THE WEST COAST OF AFRICA

Signed at Paris, August 10, 1889

Art. IV.—Sec. 1. On the Slave Coast, the line of demarcation between the spheres of influence of the two Powers shall be identical with the meridian which intersects the territory of Porto Novo at the Ajarra Creek, leaving Pokrah or Pokéa to the English Colony of Lagos. It shall follow the above-mentioned meridian as far as the 9th degree of north latitude, where it shall stop.

To the south it shall terminate on the sea-shore after having passed through the territory of Appah, the capital of which shall continue to belong to England.

II

CONVENTION BETWEEN FRANCE AND GERMANY CONFIRMING THE PROTOCOL OF JULY 9, 1897, FOR THE DELIMITATION OF THE GERMAN POSSESSION OF TOGO AND THE FRENCH POSSESS- SIONS OF DAHOMEY AND THE SUDAN

Signed at Paris, July 23, 1897

Art. I.—La frontière partira de l'intersection de la côte avec le méridien de l'île Bayol, se confondra avec ce méridien jusqu'à la rive sud de la lagune qu'elle suivra jusqu'à une distance de 100 mètres environ au delà de la pointe est de l'île Bayol, remontera ensuite directement au nord jusqu'au midistance de la rive sud et de la rive nord de la lagune ; puis suivra les sinuosités de la lagune à égale distance des deux rives jusqu'au thalweg du Mono, qu'elle suivra jusqu'au 7° degré de latitude nord.

De l'intersection du thalweg du Mono avec le 7° degré de latitude nord, la frontière rejoindra par ce parallèle le méridien de l'Île Bayol, qui servira de limite jusqu'à son intersection avec le parallèle passant à égale distance de Bassila et de Penesoulou. De ce point, elle gagnera la Rivière Kara suivant une ligne équidistante des chemins de Bassila à Bafilo par Kirikri et de Penesoulou à Séméré par Adeljo, et ensuite des chemins de Sudu à Séméré et d'Aledjo à Séméré de manière à passer à égale distance de Daboni et d'Aledjo ainsi que de Sudu et d'Aledjo. Elle descendra ensuite le thalweg de la Rivière Kara sur une longueur de 5 kilom. et de ce point remontera en ligne droite vers le nord jusqu'au 10° degré de latitude nord, Séméré devant dans tous les cas rester à la France.

De là, la frontière se dirigera directement sur un point situé à égale distance entre Djé et Gandou, laissant Djé à la France et Gando à l'Allemagne et gagnera le 11° degré de latitude nord en suivant une ligne parallèle à la route de Sansanné-Mango à Pama et distante de celle-ci de 30 kilom. Elle se prolongera ensuite vers l'ouest sur le 11° degré de latitude nord jusqu'à la Volta blanche de manière à laisser en tout cas Pougno à la France et Koun-Djari à l'Allemagne, puis elle rejoindra par le thalweg de cette rivière le 10° degré de latitude nord qu'elle suivra jusqu'à son intersection avec le méridien 3° 52' ouest de Paris (1° 32' ouest de Greenwich).

III

CONVENTION BETWEEN GREAT BRITAIN AND FRANCE FOR THE DELIMITATION OF THEIR RESPECTIVE POSSESSIONS TO THE WEST OF THE NIGER, AND OF THEIR RESPECTIVE POSSESSIONS AND SPHERES OF INFLUENCE TO THE EAST OF THAT RIVER

Signed at Paris, June 14, 1898

Art. II.—The frontier between the British Colony of Lagos and the French Colony of Dahomey, which was delimited on the ground by the Anglo-French Boundary Commission of 1895, and which is described in the Report signed by the Commissioners of the two nations on the 12th October, 1896, shall henceforward be recognized as the frontier separating the British and French possessions from the sea to the 9th degree of north latitude.

From the point of intersection of the River Ocpara with the 9th degree of north latitude, as determined by the said Commissioners, the frontier separating the British and French possessions shall proceed in a northerly direction, and follow a line passing west of the lands belonging to the following places, viz. Tabira, Okuta (Okouta); Boria, Tere, Gbani, Ashigere (Yassikéra), and Dekala.

From the most westerly point of the lands belonging to Dekala the frontier shall be drawn in a northerly direction so as to coincide as far as possible with the line indicated on Map No. 1 annexed to the present Protocol, and shall strike the right bank of the Niger at a point situated 10 miles (16·093 metres) up stream from the centre of the town of Gere (Guiris) (the port of Ilo), measured as the crow flies.

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MAPS

Dahomy is covered by the War Office map 'West Africa' (G.S.G.S. 2434), on the scale of 1 : 6,336,000, 1903 (additions 1914, boundaries corrected 1919); also by the map 'Anglo-French Boundary from the Gulf of Guinea to the Niger' (T.S., G.S. No. 2075), scale 1 : 1,000,000, revised 1906; and by sheets 61 and 73 (old numbering) of the War Office map of Africa (G.S.G.S. 1539), on the scale of 1 : 1,000,000. The southern part of Dahomey is covered by 2 sheets (73 B and 73 F) of the G.S.G.S. map on the scale 1 : 250,000.

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MAURETANIA

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I. GEOGRAPHY PHYSICAL AND POLITICAL

(1) POSITION AND FRONTIERS

MAURETANIA is a region of French West Africa lying between the Spanish possession of Rio de Oro on the north and the River Senegal on the south, and extending inland to an indeterminate line in the neighbourhood of the meridian 7° west.

The boundary between Mauretania and Rio de Oro, which has never been delimited, was established by the Treaty of Paris of June 27, 1900. The line starts from the coast at a point midway between the south point of Cape Blanco and West Bay. It bisects the Cape Blanco Peninsula, running north-north-east till it reaches the parallel of $21^{\circ} 20'$ north latitude. This it follows eastwards as far as the meridian of 13° west longitude. Thence it runs somewhat west of north so as to include the *sebka* (p. 25) of Ijil in French territory, and then in a north-easterly direction to the intersection of the 12th meridian west longitude with the tropic of Cancer (about $23^{\circ} 3' N.$). It then follows the tropic eastward to about 7° west, near Bir el-Kseb. This meridian approximately marks the eastern frontier, which is, however, quite undefined from Bir el-Kseb to the well of Aratan east of Tishit; in fact, both the northern and eastern boundaries fluctuate according to the vigour and success of the military expeditions of the French. From Aratan the frontier runs across the Hodh to Aiun Latrus, thence in a south-westerly direction to Umu, and from there almost due west to Kankossa (about $16^{\circ} 10' N.$, $11^{\circ} 25' W.$) on the Karakoro *marigot*, which constitutes the boundary as far as its junction with the Senegal at Khabu. The southern boundary, which is the only natural frontier

of the colony, is formed by the course of the Senegal from Khabu to St. Louis.

(2) SURFACE, COAST, AND RIVER SYSTEM

Surface and Natural Divisions

A large part of the surface is still unexplored, but its general characteristics are known. It consists of a central massif—the steep-sided plateau of the Adrar, Tagant, and Regeiba, surrounded by a series of plains and low plateaux more or less cloaked by parallel rows of sand dunes, running north-east and south-west. In the north-west the plateau of the Tasiast forms a southerly extension of the Tiris (see *Spanish Sahara*, No. 124 of this series). The greater part of Mauretania is desert and steppe-desert. The only regions repaying cultivation are the alluvial belt on the north bank of the Senegal, which is fertilized by the winter floods, and the oases of the Adrar and Tagant.

The Central Massif.—The Adrar Tmar (Rock of Dates) is a group of detached sandstone plateaux from 500 to 600 ft. above sea-level, running north-east and south-west from about $21^{\circ} 40'$ to $19^{\circ} 25'$ north latitude. The north-east part is little known. An offshoot of the principal chain, running due north, is connected by a few isolated crags with the *kedja* of Ijil (23° N.), a group of quartzite peaks about 800 ft. high, lying in the desert east of the Ijil salt deposits. To west and south the Adrar is bounded by sheer cliffs (*dahr*) falling steeply to the plain, and impossible to ascend except by a few narrow and difficult defiles. It is watered by many streams, springs, and *oglat* (rock reservoirs), and contains over forty large and fertile oases, which make it the most valuable region of the West Sahara. The most important oases are Atar, Shingeti, and Wadan. They contain thickly populated *ksur* (villages) and large plantations of date palms, beneath which cereals and vegetables are grown, and form centres of supply for the Mauretanian tribes. This combination of fertility and security has long

made the Adrar the natural fortress and place of refuge of the West Sahara.

To the south, the sand ravine of Khat, broad in the west, but deep and narrow in the east, separates the Adrar from the Tagant, a sandstone plateau of similar construction, 300 ft. in height, surrounded to west, south, and south-east by a steep escarpment, the top of which is only accessible to caravans by a few difficult passes where the dunes have piled up against the cliff. To the east this escarpment is continuous with the Dahr Tishit, extending for 150 miles east of Tijikja, and to the south it joins the ridge of the Assaba Mountains, which run south to the Gorgol. The Tagant is furrowed by wadis containing pasture and a few palm groves, and has several important oases, the chief being Tijikja (Fort Coppolani) with 40,000 date palms and 1,000 wells. South and south-east of the Tagant, the massif is continued by the Regeiba, a high savannah thinly covered with sand.

The Dunes and Aftut.—On the north, east, and west, the Adrar and Tagant are surrounded by plains, extending to the coast on the west, and continuous with the Juf Desert to the east. Though these plains include large, stony tracts (*reg*), the greater part is covered by long parallel rows of dunes, generally blown in a north-easterly and south-westerly direction by the prevailing winds. Some of these are "live" or mobile, some "dead" and covered with vegetation. In the west the dunes are separated by long narrow plains or shallow valleys (*aftut*), often stony, and generally deficient in water, but frequently providing winter pasture. Thus, in the north-west, the great Azefal and Akshar dunes are separated by the Tijirit, a hard plain with occasional moist depressions (*grara*). South-east of the Akshar, the wide depression known in its upper part as the Baten and Amsaga (Amseyga), in its lower as the Inshiri, runs south-west from the Adrar to the neighbourhood of Nuakshott—a post on the coast (at lat. $18^{\circ} 07'$, long. $18^{\circ} 21' 30''$) established in 1903. South of the Inshiri are a series of narrow

parallel bands of dune and *aftut*, the dunes here forming a confused mass, mostly mobile and difficult to cross. To the north and east the Adrar and Tagant are encircled by the great dunes of Maktir and Waran, which are visited by the nomads in the winter for their fine pasture.

The Trarza, Brakna, and Gorgol.—The southern part of the colony is divided from west to east into the administrative circles of Trarza, Brakna, and Gorgol. The Trarza and Western Brakna form for the most part a region of dunes, generally covered with acacia scrub, and containing many wells but few water-courses. The district immediately north of the Senegal, however, consists of good arable land. The Eastern Brakna, to the valley of the Gorgol, is a hard clay plain, often covered with pebbles, and furrowed by wadis which flow during the winter only and empty themselves into interior lakes. There is good pasture near the lakes and swamps, which form extensive marshes in the winter, but the rest of the country has little vegetation. The region east of the Gorgol basin, and extending north from the Senegal to the Assaba Mountains, is watered by numerous wadis and *marigots* (backwaters), and is the most cultivated district of the colony. A strip of rich alluvial land, the Shamama, 10 to 15 miles wide, and covered with tropical vegetation, follows the north bank of the Senegal from the Karakoro to the sea. Between August and November the inundations of the Senegal turn the Shamama into an immense marsh.

The Coastal Plain.—The low plains of soft marine sandstone which border the coast of Rio de Oro extend south into Mauretania and in some parts penetrate upwards of 50 miles inland. The surface is sandy, and is broken by small dunes and depressions, with occasional *sebkas*, sometimes containing deposits of gypsum and salt. The greater part of the coast plain is poor and arid, but east of Lévrier Bay it is interrupted by the broken sandstone plateaux of the Suhel el-Abiob, about 120 ft. high, and the Krakesh, fine

pastoral country with excellent grazing and deep and good wells. East and south-east of the Suhel el-Âbiob, the tableland of the Tasiast lies between the Azefal dune and the shore. This is really a spur of the Tiris, and has a hard, pebbly surface, broken by ridges of brackish rock, and fairly rich seasonal vegetation of the *aftut* type.

Coast

The coast, from Cape Blanco to the mouth of the Senegal, has a length of about 320 miles. The only promontory of importance between these two points is Cape Timiris (Mirik), south of St. John's Bay ($19^{\circ} 22' 14''$ N., $16^{\circ} 28'$ W.). At the far end is a lagoon, with an extreme length of 750 ft., closed from the sea by a narrow line of dunes, but filling at spring tides.

The coast line is generally low and sandy, nowhere rising more than 20 or 30 ft. above the sea. In many parts it consists of mobile dunes, bare of vegetation, and is fringed by sandbanks, making access from the sea difficult, if not impossible. There are three important inlets, Lévrier Bay, Arguin Bay, and St. John's Bay, which are described below (p. 17).

River System

The only river system is that of the Senegal. The river is subject to great seasonal variations; but the natural reservoirs formed by its reaches maintain a considerable volume of water at all times of the year. Between July and October its floods inundate the land to the north. In exceptional years, the waters spread over a zone 15 to 20 miles wide, and even extend as far north as Ijer, about 12 miles south of Nuakshott. The Senegal receives on its north bank several tributaries, besides *marigots*, which only contain surface water in the winter months. The most important tributary is the Gorgol, which enters the Senegal at Kaedi. Below Dagana, in the Trarza, the Garak, Sokhan, and Gedayo channels connect the Senegal

with the Cayar Lake, a large depression which fills during the floods and acts as a reservoir, gradually discharging its waters during the dry months. The Cayar can be reached in autumn by small craft drawing 2 ft. and under; but from December to June it is a mere swamp, completely separated from the main stream.

(3) CLIMATE

Mauretania has two distinct climatic regimes. South of Cape Timiris it shares the Sudan climate of Senegal, with heavy and regular autumn rains, which gradually decrease from south to north; while to the north of Cape Timiris, the climate is Saharan, with slight and irregular winter rains, always insufficient in the neighbourhood of Port Etienne, and sometimes failing for several successive years.

The scanty records available indicate that south of Nuakshott the conditions are approximately those of St. Louis, with a mean maximum temperature (September) of 89° F. (32° C.), and a mean minimum (January) of 53° F. (12° C.). Intense damp heat is experienced from July to September in the Shamama belt. In the south diurnal variations are slight, but rapidly increase towards the north. At Nuakshott, in February, day readings of 90° to 100° F. (32° to 38° C.) and night readings of 45° to 54° F. (7° to 12° C.) are recorded. At Port Etienne the average daily variation is said to be 18° to 27° F. (10° to 15° C.), with a mean maximum temperature (September) of 82° F. (28° C.) and a mean minimum (January) of 48° F. (9° C.). Inland, both heat and variation are much greater. At Tijikja, in May 1908, the mean maximum was 106° F. (41° C.); and day temperatures of 104° F. (40° C.) frequently fall at night to 44° - 46° F. (7° - 8° C.).

The rainfall varies from about 100 mm. (4 in.) at the mouth of the Senegal, where there are frequent autumn storms, to 1 mm. (0.03937 of an inch) at Port Etienne. Inland, the Saharan rainfall is small and extremely

irregular, and may fail for several successive years. The wholesale destruction of brushwood by the Moors is believed to have increased the aridity of the country. On the coast, though the rains are insufficient and variable, they are supplemented by heavy dews, which drench the vegetation and keep the pasture upon the dunes green even after a year's drought. Port Etienne is obliged to distil its drinking water, but it experiences occasional storms, one of which may yield as much as 400 tons of water to its reservoirs.

The prevalent wind on the coast is north-east. In the south, westerly and even south-westerly winds are common in autumn. The east wind (*harmattan*) often blows with violence in the hot weather, raising dangerous sandstorms in the Saharan region, and creating excessively trying conditions on shore.

(4) SANITARY CONDITIONS

At Port Etienne the conditions are endurable by Europeans, provided exposure to the sun, undue exertion, and risk of night chill are avoided. The sudden drop of temperature between 3 and 5 P.M. is trying. Malaria is unknown in this district. Among the native population the most prevalent disease is a form of scurvy. In the Saharan regions, the great variations of temperature are dangerous to Europeans, and produce much tuberculosis and bronchitis among the natives, while ophthalmia and conjunctivitis, caused by the pervading sand, are common to all races. Syphilis is the principal scourge of the Moorish nomads. On the banks of the Senegal malaria is endemic, but is vigorously fought by the authorities. The damp heat of the Shamama belt makes it extremely unhealthy to Europeans.

(5) RACE AND LANGUAGE

Race

The great majority of the inhabitants of Mauretania are nomadic Moors, i.e., Arabs and Arabized Berbers

belonging to the same ethnic group and often to the same tribes as the nomads of Rio de Oro. The Moors have gradually pressed south in search of better pasture and more tolerable conditions, expelling the aboriginal negroid population from the right bank of the Senegal; but recently, especially since the French occupation, a return movement of the aborigines has taken place. Negroid groups have crossed the river, and established village settlements in the Shamama and South Gorgol. The principal races involved are the Wolofs, Tukulers, Sarakoles, and Peuls.¹

It follows that Mauretania forms an intermediate ethnic zone between the white populations of North Africa and the negro belt. By constant association with the black races, the Moors, especially in the south, have, to a great extent, lost their racial purity. It is calculated by Lasnet that one-third of the Moors of the Senegal basin are now negroid, one-tenth pure Hamites, and the rest Berbers and Arabs more or less crossed with black blood. The negro and Moor half-castes, called Porognes, are also an important element of the population.

The Moors are essentially nomadic. Only the inhabitants of the Adrar and Tagant oases, and the Imragen, or Porognes, of the coast, lead a semi-sedentary life, while the rest wander perpetually between Rio de Oro and Mauretania, their migrations being governed partly by the state of wells and pastures and partly by political considerations. The political events of 1910-1917 have greatly affected the migrations of the tribes.

The attitude of the Moors to Europeans is one of suspicion and dislike, and they regard the black races with utter contempt.

Language

Arabic is the current language of the Moors, though a few *marabut* divisions of the Trarza still speak the

¹ For these races see *Senegal*, No. 102, and *Upper Senegal and Niger Territories*, No. 107 of this series.

Zenaga, or Berber, dialect. The Wolofs, Tukulers, Sarakoles, and Peuls of the Senegal basin have each their own tongue; but those in regular contact with the Moors frequently understand Arabic.

(6) POPULATION

The nomadic character of the people and their frequent oscillations between Mauretania and Rio de Oro make an accurate estimate of their numbers impossible. The *Annuaire du Gouvernement général de l'Afrique Occidentale Française* for 1913 gives the round figure of 600,000: the *Statistiques de la Population dans les Colonies françaises*, 1914, makes the number 250,000, which is probably nearer the mark, as it has been found that careful investigation invariably reduces the supposed numbers of nomad tribes. This figure, which represents a density of 1·4 to the square mile, is made up of 214,000 Moors, 36,000 negroes and negroids, and 144 Europeans.

The population is densest in the south, and is estimated at 112,500 in the Trarza province, 51,000 in the Brakna, and upwards of 30,000 in the Gorgol. The Tagant is said to have 34,000 inhabitants, and the Adrar 20,000. The settlement at Port Etienne numbers 800, of whom 17 are Europeans. The four big *ksurs* of the Adrar—Atar, Shingeti, Wadan, and Ujeft—are said to be densely populated; Atar, the trading centre, being a considerable town with several thousand inhabitants. Tijikja and Rashid, in the Tagant, are credited with 2,000 or 3,000 inhabitants between them. With these exceptions, the population of Mauretania is dispersed in small groups of huts or tents. The dune and *aftut* region north of 18° north latitude is practically uninhabited, save for occasional nomad camps.

II. POLITICAL HISTORY

CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY

- 1900 Boundary treaty with Spain.
- 1904 Mauretania made part of the Government-General of French West Africa.
- 1909 Reduction of Adrar territory.

HISTORY

THE French advance on the Upper Senegal in 1880-90 rendered possible the occupation of the little known and thinly peopled territory to the north of the river, and brought the claims of France into contact with those of Spain, which, since 1884, had established a protectorate over the coast from Cape Bojador to Cape Blanco and the adjacent hinterland. Various efforts to settle the extent of the respective claims from 1886 onwards resulted in the Convention of June 27, 1900, under which the boundary of the Spanish sphere was defined in the manner already described.¹ The delimitation of the Spanish boundary north of 26° north was provided for in Article V of the Franco-Spanish Convention of October 3, 1904, which also fixed the boundary of Morocco at the Draa, and ascribed to Spain liberty of action in the region between 26° and 27° 40' north latitude west of 8° 40' west longitude.² The subsequent Convention of November 27, 1912, fixes the boundary between the French and Spanish spheres at the *thalweg* of the Draa from the sea to its intersection with 8° 40' west longitude, along which meridian it then runs south to 27° 40' north latitude.

¹ See above, p. 1. France was conceded a right of pre-emption over the Spanish territory.

² Cd. 6010, pp. 3, 4.

In the territory thus left open for French action little trouble was experienced in obtaining (1903) the submission of the non-Moorish tribes (Wolofs, Peuls, Tukulers, and Sarakoles) inhabiting the right bank of the Senegal; but the vast body of the population of more or less nomad Moors has proved less tractable. Raids on the occupied territory gave rise in 1908 to the despatch of an expedition under Colonel Gouraud, which, on January 9, 1909, captured Atar, the chief centre of Adrar, and drove the Moors northward into Spanish territory. An energetic campaign (1910-13) followed, which resulted in the submission of those who were still resisting, and brought Adrar under effective control. French rule, however, does not as yet obtain completely throughout the rest of the territory.

III. SOCIAL AND POLITICAL CONDITIONS

By the Decree of October 18, 1904, the territory of Mauretania was placed under the administration of a Commissioner of the Government-General of French West Africa, acting in subordination to the Governor-General; and, as the local revenue is not large, the budget of the territory forms an annexe to that of the Government-General, from which it receives subventions. The actual administration is naturally largely confined to political control. The problem of government is complicated by the difference of race, as, besides the negro tribes, there are warrior and *marabut* Moorish tribes with different customs. To meet this difficulty elaborate modifications have been made in the rules of native jurisdiction, which are applied in their normal form only to the negro tribes. In the case of the Moors, the *kadi* of the tribe takes the place of the chief as the head of the village tribunal; the tribunal of the subdivision consists of the French Resident, assisted by the *kadi*, and a notable, if the case affects members of one tribe only. If it affects a negro and a Moor, the Resident is assisted by the *kadi* and the chief of the negro tribe; if it affects Moors of different tribes, by the two *kadis*. In the case of the nomad Moors the normal village and subdivisional tribunals are displaced in favour of their own institutions; if a dispute arises between a Moor of a sedentary tribe and a nomad, the Resident presides over the court, assisted by the *kadi* and the magistrate of the nomad tribe. The courts of the divisions are presided over by the Commandants, assisted by assessors, and in any case affecting persons of different legal categories one assessor of each category must be present.¹

¹ *Arrêté* of October 5, 1913.

IV. ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

(A) MEANS OF COMMUNICATION

(1) INTERNAL

It was not till 1903 that the Civil Protectorate of Mauretania came into being, and it was only after prolonged military efforts that that title was made more than an administrative fiction. Even to-day, the Protectorate remains sensitive to disturbances in Morocco, its record is not entirely bloodless, and works of peace flourish only under military protection. The figures of the Budget for 1913 give some idea of the relative position of civil and military necessities. The salaries and equipment of administrative officials in that year amounted to £14,814, whereas similar charges for military police and native guards totalled £24,478. Posts, telegraphs, and wireless installations cost £6,080, public works £2,127, public instruction £426, and agriculture £198. The fact is that Mauretania is only now emerging from what one of its well-wishers calls its "larval stage," and that there has not been time to do much more than give the security which is a preliminary of economic development. It is something that trade has begun to flow more freely and widely. Extensive improvements of routes and public works are not as yet to be expected.

(a) *Caravan Routes and Tracks*

Caravan traffic is large and increasing. The existing routes fall into two groups; one connecting trading stations on the river with the chief administrative

centres, the other serving the villages and oases of the Tagant and Adrar plateaux.

The most notable route in the first group runs northward from St. Louis by Nuakshott, keeping parallel with the coast until it turns inland to avoid the Suhel el-Abiob. A route branches from this at Nuakshott, and runs north-eastward to the Adrar by way of the Inshiri depression. At Iaghref it is joined by a track from N'Dumeri. Water is to be had on these three routes at intervals of not more than 18 miles.

Seven other tracks are included in this group. The most westerly of these runs from Dagana on the south bank of the river to Kruffa in the gum country. A second, starting from Podor, higher up stream, runs to Butilimit and then north to Tuisikt in the Inshiri district. From Aleg, the administrative centre of the Brakna circle, tracks run north-west to Butilimit and north-east by way of Shogar, Gimi and the Tagant towards the frontier of Upper Senegal and Niger. From Kaedi, at the confluence of the Senegal and Gorgol Rivers, one track goes north by Muit and Mal to Gimi, while another runs first east to M'But, then north to the Tagant by the pass of Fum-Bafu, and so to Tijikja, renamed Fort Coppolani after the first Commissioner for Mauretania, who was killed there in 1905. The most easterly of these tracks connects Bakel, on the south bank of the river, with Selibaly, and then goes on to Kiffa and Tishit, which in 1913 were transferred to Mauretania from Upper Senegal and Niger.

In the second group there are three important main routes through the Adrar. The western runs from Talorza to Tizegui. The eastern, starting at the same point, goes by way of Ujeft to Aghmagu in the north-east. The central route leaves the eastern at Ujeft, passes through the important oases of Atar, and then makes north by Ksar-Teurshane to the *sebka* of Ijil on the eastern borders of Rio de Oro. Wadan and Shingeti, the other two chief oases of the Adrar, are connected by tracks with Tijikja to the south, and R'asseremt to the west.

A condition of the effective utilization of these routes is the provision of an adequate water supply. The Government has shown energy in making new wells and in keeping those already in existence clean and in good repair. The work, however, is attended by considerable difficulties. Often the shaft has to go very deep before water is reached; the Moors are careless, and allow the supply to be fouled with sand and refuse; while local rebellions sometimes interrupt progress. In 1913, for example, in the Brakna district, a well was sunk to a depth of 195 ft. without reaching water, and its construction was suspended twice in twelve months on account of armed attacks. In the Trarza, on the other hand, where peaceful conditions prevailed, six wells were made in the same period, with a total depth of over 900 ft.

The animals used for transport are camels, humped oxen, horses and donkeys. The first are invaluable in the desert parts, and the breed most commonly employed is strong, though small, each animal taking a load of 5 cwt. In the damp ground near the river, however, they are subject to disease, and can therefore only be employed during the dry season. Their place is supplied by oxen, whose pace is almost as good. These oxen are docile and strong, each carrying a load of 200 lb., and they are impervious to the attacks of the tsetse fly. Horses have only a limited use in Mauretania, for near the river they are ruined by the tsetse, and, in most other parts, there is not enough water for them. However, the warrior tribes possess some of the sturdy Tekna breed, and Barbary horses, which are in great request among the Moors, are bred in small numbers in the Adrar and Tagant. The most pathetic animal is the little local donkey, "*méprisé, mal soigné, mal nourri et bon à tout.*" Though small and lean, it is willing and strong, and can carry a load of 100 to 130 lb. It is looked upon with contempt, however, except by the Zenagas and the Imragen fishermen.

(b) Rivers

The only navigable river of any size or permanence is the Senegal. The chief trading stations are on the south bank. Details of the navigation are given in *Senegal* (No. 102 of this series).

The Kundi backwater, 75 miles in length, stretches from Boghe on the east to Babakar Numbe on the west, with a port at Regba, about midway. It is entirely in Mauretanian territory and is navigable for part of the year by vessels of light draught.

Of the tributaries of the Senegal, the most considerable is the White Gorgol, which can be ascended by canoes between August and October as far as Bel Tadi, 40 miles above Kaedi. Most of the other tributaries, the Garak, Sokan and Gedayo in the west, and the Karakoro in the east, have sufficient water in the rains for craft drawing 2 ft. or less. In the dry season only surface water remains.

(c) Railways

There are no regular railways, but at Kaedi and Port Etienne Decauville lines have been laid to facilitate the handling of goods.

(d) Posts and Telegraphs

There are fourteen post offices, from six of which telegrams can be sent. A telegraph line, connected with Aere in Senegal, runs north-eastward from Boghe on the river by Aleg and Gimi to Mujeria on the Tagant plateau. A branch from Aleg connects with Butilimit. A line has been constructed recently between Tijikja and the river.

There are wireless stations for inland service only at Atar and Shingeti.

(2) EXTERNAL*(a) Ports*

Accommodation.—The coast of Mauretania is difficult of access, bleak, and scantily supplied with

water. There are three important inlets: St. John's Bay, Arguin Bay, and Lévrier Bay.

St. John's Bay is a long, narrow inlet, running north-east for 22 miles between the mainland and the Thela Dune, north of Cape Timiris. It is shoal, and the upper part dries at low water, so that it has little importance for navigation.

Arguin Bay lies east of St. Anne's Point. Small craft can anchor in $1\frac{1}{2}$ fathoms of water, and obtain complete shelter from prevailing winds.

Lévrier Bay lies east of the southward-projecting peninsula which ends in Cape Blanco. It has an extreme length north and south of 28 miles, and is 25 miles wide from east to west at its southern extremity. It thus forms a magnificent natural harbour. Within it are small interior bays, Archimedes Bay, Star Bay and Cansado Bay, which give even greater protection. On the last, which is the most westerly, the Government in 1906 founded a settlement, named Port Etienne, which they hope to make of some commercial importance.

The harbour at Port Etienne is safe, though sometimes choppy. Ships drawing 16 to 22 ft. can anchor in the open roadstead, with a depth of 26 to 29 ft. at low tide, while those drawing 14 ft. only can shelter behind Point Rey, which closes the bay to the north-east. There is a wharf, with a depth alongside of 11 ft. at the lowest tides; and a steam-launch of 15 tons, towing a large lighter, plies between the wharf and vessels lying in the roadstead. Decauville lines, a small travelling crane, and winches and tackle have been installed. A second wharf, T-shaped, and big enough to enable two large ships to come alongside at the same time, is under construction.

The harbour can be entered by night as well as by day. A lighthouse, with a revolving light, visible to a distance of 18 nautical miles, has been built on Cape Blanco. Fixed lights, with ranges of 13 and 6 miles respectively, have been placed on Cansado Point and at Port Etienne.

Nature and Volume of Trade.—The activity of Port Etienne is at present almost entirely confined to the fishing industry (see p. 22), though there are one or two factories which supply goods to the neighbouring tribes.

Adequacy to Economic Needs.—If Port Etienne is ever to be a first-class harbour, the present equipment will have to be largely supplemented. Not only will the wharves and cargo-handling appliances have to be improved, but extensive works will have to be undertaken in order to secure that life may be tolerable for traders settling there. Nature has provided none of the amenities and scarcely the necessities of existence. The land is utterly desolate and waterless. Two large reservoirs have been made, but the rain to fill them is very uncertain, and, for ordinary needs, water is got from a distilling apparatus, capable of producing 1 metric ton per hour. In the early days, when the distilling apparatus was not working satisfactorily, there were some anxious moments in which the supply seemed likely to fail altogether, and though a second apparatus is now installed in case of accident to the first, the water question must still be regarded as very serious. It is believed, however, that a large subterranean sheet of water exists, and if the port develops it will be necessary to undertake works on a large scale so as to make this available.

(b) Shipping Lines

Monthly communication is maintained with Dakar by a steamer of the Compagnie des Messageries Maritimes Africaines. This is the only line calling regularly, but the port has been visited by boats belonging to the Chargeurs Réunis, Maurel and Prom, Devès and Chaumet, and J. Holt and Co.

(c) Wireless Communication

In 1910 a wireless station was opened at Port Etienne. This has a normal range of 540 nautical miles by day and 1,600 nautical miles by night.

(B) INDUSTRY

(1) LABOUR

Labour in Mauretania is mainly supplied by the black population, Wolofs, Tukulers, and Sarakoles, who fled before the Moors to the south of the Senegal, and have now returned in large numbers to the north bank. They normally employ themselves in agriculture, though in bad seasons they will take paid work in Senegal as labourers on the railway or elsewhere. They are docile and fairly intelligent workers, when under European direction. The Tukulers in particular are said to be energetic and full of initiative, keenly alive to their own advantage and willing to undergo considerable hardship for assured gain. In the Adrar, the palm groves are worked by negroid dependents of the Moors.

The Moors themselves, as a general rule, despise manual labour, and only extreme necessity will induce them to abandon their nomadic life or accept service under Europeans. The Imragen of the coast, however, are skilled and industrious fishermen, and their help will be valuable when the fisheries are fully exploited.

(2) AGRICULTURE

(a) *Products of Commercial Value*

(i) *Vegetable Products*.—In the Senegal valley the conditions of vegetation are those of the Sudan (see *Senegal*, No. 102 of this series). The river banks are covered with dense jungle, the characteristic trees being the baobab, dwarf palm and gonake. Coco-nut palms have been introduced, and flourish north of St. Louis. Between the Senegal valley and the latitude of Cape Timiris the vegetation is of the Sahel type. The principal shrub is the acacia (*A. tortilis* and *A. verec*), which forms dense forests in the Trarza and North Brakna and Gorgol. The dwarf palm and other Sudan species extend north to the oases of the Tagant, but elsewhere plant life is confined to grasses, mimosa-

scrub, salsolaceous and similar forms. Tamarisk and *afernan* (*Euphorbia balsamifera*) grow abundantly on the coastal dunes. North of Cape Timiris, Saharan conditions are general. Tamarisk and euphorbias cease, and the *talha* (*Acacia tortilis*) is the only tree. Salt-steppe plants are in the majority near the coast, where species having roots near the surface benefit by the heavy dews, and keep green during the greater part of the year. Throughout the Saharan zone the herbage grows in tufts, and as a rule more luxuriantly on the dunes than on the *aftut*. The most widely distributed species are the *askaf* (*Traganum nudatum*), *getaf* (*Atriplex habimus*), *damran* (*Chenolea canariensis*) and *had* (*Cornulaca manacantha*). *Calotroois procera* and *titarek* (*Leptadenia pyrotechnica*) are common throughout Sahara and Sahel. In the Adrar, thorny scrub, mimosa and desert grasses predominate, growing chiefly in the ravines and moist depressions.

Economically, the most important wild plant is the gum-acacia (*A. verec*). Next in value are the plants used for camel fodder, especially the *askaf* (*Traganum nudatum*), which covers vast surfaces of the Akshar and Azefal dunes. The *talha* (*Acacia tortilis*), growing in the same situations, is also eaten by camels. Nineteen species of grass have been identified, the best for pasture being the *nsid* (*Koeleria phlacoides*), *sbat* (*Aristida pungens*), *initi* (*Cenchrus echinatus*), and *tirishit* (*Andropogon faneolatus*). The fibres of *titarek* are used by the Imragen for making nets and cords.

Cultivated plants are practically confined to the Adrar, Tagant, Brakna and Gorgol regions. In the oases of the Adrar and Tagant, dates of excellent quality are grown on a large scale, and wheat, barley, millet, maize, onions, tobacco, &c., flourish under the trees. Henna is cultivated at Tijikja. The *grara* or moist depressions are also sown, usually with large millet, but the yield is very variable. Vines have done well at Atar. On the north bank of the Senegal, millet and ground-nuts, especially the former, are cultivated

on a large scale. These crops extend for some distance north of the river in the Gorgol, which is irrigated by numerous *marigots*, but in the Brakna the millet fields occur only in the immediate vicinity of the villages. The introduction of cotton in the Shamama has been suggested, and would probably be successful. Plantations of fruit trees have done well at Aleg, Kaedi, Boghe and Selibaly. Experiments are being made with Sudan rice at Boghe and Kaedi.

(ii) *Animal Products*.—Cultivated land forms but a small fraction of the Protectorate. The natural wealth of the remainder consists entirely of animals, and it is the need of finding water and fresh pasturage for their flocks and herds which accounts for the constant wanderings of the Moorish tribes. Camels are bred in the great plains of Auker in the south-east and in the Tiris and Tasiast in the north-west. They vary in price from £2 8s. to £8, the finest coming from the hills of Adrar Sottof on the borders of Rio de Oro. Horses bred locally are small but strong, and fetch good prices. In 1913 a horse could be bought in the Tagant or the Gorgol for about £15, while near the river a mare cost as much as £40-£60. Two sorts of cattle are bred, the humped oxen for transport and a humpless variety for meat. The latter are grazed in the Trarza and Tasiast, and in winter in the Inshiri. The herds contain from 300 to 500 head. An ox in the interior costs £2 8s., a cow £4 or more, whereas in the Brakna an ox is only worth about £1 4s. There are large flocks of sheep. The majority, bred on the coast, are hair-coated and valued for the leather made from their skins. Fleecy varieties are bred in the Adrar and the Tiris in the north, and Hodh in the south. The average price of a sheep in the interior is 4s. Donkeys are numerous. A he-ass rarely fetches more than £1 4s. to £1 8s., but a female can be sold for double that amount.

The ostrich is found in the dunes of Maktir north of the Adrar, and is said to come down at certain seasons to the coastal plains, where the eggs are occasionally found among the sand dunes.

(b) Methods of Cultivation

There is scope for a good deal of improvement both in cultural methods and in irrigation. Most of the Brakna province might be brought under the plough, if a regular system of irrigation were introduced, and the output of the Adrar could be much increased.

(c) Forestry

The forest of Iguidi begins about 50 miles north of the Senegal River, and stretches northward to a distance of about 125 miles. The chief trees are palms, acacias and other gum-yielding shrubs, the baobab and the gonake. This last, which occurs mainly in the Gorgol and Guidimaka, furnishes a hard wood suitable for cabinet-making, with a fruit which can be used for tanning.

Unless the forest is protected it will rapidly disappear, for the natives cut down shrubs to feed their animals on the young shoots, while canoemen on the Senegal, who wish to sell wood and charcoal at St. Louis, take what they want from the north bank. Forest agents have now been appointed, and the cutting down of gum trees has been forbidden.

(3) FISHERIES

Fish are abundant all along the coast, on account of the warm current from the Gulf Stream. Writers and travellers from the fifteenth century onwards gave exaggerated accounts of the riches of the Arguin sand-bank, which stretches parallel with Mauretania for almost a degree of longitude and a degree and a half of latitude. Other parts of the Mauretanian coast, however, are quite as well supplied, and a French commission, sent out to inspect in 1905, advised the Government to make a fishing centre near Cape Blanco. This was the origin of Port Etienne.

Fish, both migratory and other, frequent these waters, and with the trawl, the seine and surface lines

numerous varieties can be obtained, suitable for salting or drying, as well as for immediate consumption. Soles are common, but the Moors despise flat fish, and throw them away if they catch them accidentally. There are large shoals of sardines and anchovies. One characteristic feature is the large number of fish which closely resemble the cod, with which, however, they are not zoologically connected. Among these are the *cherne* (*Serranus caninus*) and the *cherne ley* (*Serranus æneus*), which may weigh 22 lb. or more, and attain a great size, especially near Nuakshott; the *Serranus gigas*, which is an even more magnificent fish, and the *curbina* (*Scicena aquila*), which sometimes exceeds 4 ft. in length. These last follow the mullets into Lévrier Bay, and can be caught with them in a strong seine. Spiny lobsters (*langoustes*) are found in large numbers. One variety, *Panulirus vulgaris*, red in colour, and varying in weight from 4 to as much as 13 lb., is found all along the coast, but is not much valued. A smaller variety, *Panulirus regius*, olive-green with yellow bands on the claws, weighing from 3 to 4 lb., is equally abundant, and of a finer flavour.

Until quite recent times, the only fishing in these waters was done by Canary Islanders and the Imragen tribes of the coast. The former came in schooners, with smaller boats carried on board, which were launched when the fishing-ground was reached. The Imragen had no boats, and simply waded into the sea. Neither employed modern methods, or secured more than a mere fraction of the possible catch.

Every effort is now being made to establish at Port Etienne a fishing industry on a really large scale. Companies, such as the Compagnie Grésilonne, the Compagnie Sud-Africaine, and the Compagnie Coopérative Bretonne Mauritanienne, employ Breton fishermen, who come out annually to catch the fish, while on shore the companies have large drying stations for its preparation. The season generally begins in November and ends in May. At present, however, its length

varies, the output is uncertain, and the totals cannot be accurately computed, because some boats leave without declaring the amount of their catch. The *Rapport d'Ensemble* for 1913, issued by the Government of French West Africa, gives the following figures:—

—	Salt Fish.	Dried Fish.	Lobsters.
	Metric Tons.	Metric Tons.	
1912	574	10	139,300
1913	197	34	300,000

It is certain, however, that these totals fail to represent the actual amount of fish taken.

The trade is concerned both with dried fish and fresh fish. There is an almost unlimited African market for the former, for the native relishes dried fish more than any other food, even when prepared according to his own execrable methods. It is interesting to notice that in 1913, when Spain put on a prohibitive tariff which practically closed the Las Palmas market, two Breton companies withdrew from Port Étienne before the end of the season, but a third, which kept its boats out, was able to dispose of the whole of its catch at excellent prices to coast merchants. It is important that the firms preparing salted or dried fish should utilize the secondary products and make guano, fish-oil, fish-glue, &c.

The fresh fish export trade is as yet in its infancy, and its development would require the provision of frequent boats with refrigerating chambers, or, in the case of lobsters, with wells in which the fish could be transported alive. Already the Breton fishermen manage to take back quantities of lobsters alive in their boats, and, in 1911, one commercial house secured in two voyages 200 tons of fish which reached Boulogne in good condition. If fishponds could be established at

Dakar and Port Étienne, and boats for the conveyance of live fish serve both ports, there would be a saving of expense.

Seals are found in small numbers near Port Étienne, but so far have been hunted by the Moors only, and without much success.

(4) MINERALS

So far as is known at present, salt is the only mineral which is found abundantly in Mauretania. It is obtained principally from the *sebkas*, low basins impregnated with salt, which are flooded periodically by the sea, rivers, or rainwater. The salt is deposited either as crystals on the black saline slime which covers the *sebka* bed, or as bar salt, alternatively with dried mud.

The most notable of these *sebkas* is at Ijil, on the eastern borders of Rio de Oro, 170 miles north of Atar. It is about 18 miles in length by 7 in breadth, and contains four layers of salt of varying quality, the finest being at the top. The salt is cut by the Moors into blocks about a yard in length and 15 in. in width, two of which form the load of one camel. Caravans then distribute it to the Adrar, Rio de Oro, and the Nioro and Gumbu districts of Upper Senegal and Niger. The unrest following the French occupation caused a decline in the output at Ijil, which dropped from 21,000 bars in 1905 to 2,500 bars in 1910. Temporarily the trade seems to have declined in favour of salt imported from Europe *via* Senegal, but it may revive with increased security.

Sebkas exist all along the coastal plain, though they differ very much in size, character, and value. Those in the north, round Lévrier Bay, are of no economic importance. In the centre, however, in the Agnetir and Tafonelli districts, and in the south, in the Trarza, the salt is already extensively exploited by the Moors, and the possibilities of developing the industry by European enterprise have been carefully considered.

In 1908 MM. Gruvel and Chudeau, who traversed the entire coastline, reported that, in their opinion, at least seven of the Trarza *sebkas* might repay European exploitation. These, named in order of importance, were N'Terert, Tuidermi, Mujeran, Tin-Jemaran, El Bukharia, Mesil-Lebhar and Tamzagt. N'Terert, which is believed to contain upwards of 150,000 tons of fine, compact bar salt, is only second in importance to Ijil. At present the Moors take from it annually about 10,000 metric tons, which they send by oxen to Rosso and Bedieck on the Garak, for Senegal. The output might be doubled or tripled if modern methods were used.

Serious difficulties, however, stand in the way of an experiment. Transport must be cheap, if the export of salt is to pay, and there are not enough animals available. A narrow-gauge railway would be almost essential, and conditions as yet do not warrant so expensive an undertaking. Moreover, the labour problem would be serious. Negroes imported from Senegai would certainly not stay unless they could be assured of absolute protection from Moorish attack, and, even so, would find the climate and surroundings very uncongenial.

Iron ore is said to exist in the Tagant and Ijil, and to show traces of native workings. This is not now exploited, but the mines might perhaps be reopened and the metal used locally. Traces of copper are reported from Akjusht in the Inshiri district. Gypsum is found in some of the *sebkas* of the Trarza. Good brick-earth is obtained on the banks of the Aly Lake and of the Gorgol River, and also in the Brakna district.

(5) MANUFACTURES

The only industries under this head are metal and leather work. The smiths, who form a despised group among the Zenaga tribes, make bridles, saddles, daggers, gunlocks, &c., while their wives prepare leather, decorate it, often very artistically, and make

scabbards; bags, coverlets and so on. These articles are usually intended, not for sale, but for the use of the tribe.

(C) COMMERCE

(1) DOMESTIC

Very little information can be obtained as to commerce in Mauretania. Much of the country is undeveloped, and trade in the interior is carried on by barter. It is clear, however, that the Moors are turning more and more to commercial pursuits. The warrior tribes, finding their opportunities of brigandage much reduced under French rule, are now obliged to add to their incomes by condescending to military service, the transport and gum trades and the breeding of camels for sale. A steady exchange of products goes on between the Senegal and adjacent places, such as Mederdra, Butilimit, Aleg and M'But. In December, when the floods are over, the Trarza, Brakna and Duaish tribes approach the river, bringing gum for sale. Dagana is the trading centre for the Trarza, Podor for the Brakna, and Kaedi for the Duaish tribes. They remain near the river for the dry season, employing their camels in the transport of ground-nuts, but by July, when the damp heat becomes dangerous to camels, retire to the dunes. Certain *marabut* tribes move between the Adrar and the coast, bartering millet, cattle, and other goods with the Imragen for dried fish, which they sell in the interior. There is also a growing trade between the Adrar and the south. In 1913 more than 2,000 camels were used in this traffic, and 150 metric tons of dates and 100 metric tons of salt were carried to Butilimit and Mujeria.

(2) FOREIGN

(a) *Exports*

Fish, gum, salt, dates, ostrich feathers, worked leather, sheep, goats, cattle and camels are exported.

The first has already been dealt with (see p. 24). The rest, whose total value may be about £480,000, find their chief market in Senegal.

(b) Imports

The total value of the imports is about £320,000. They include arms and ammunition, coffee, spice, sugar, paper and parchment from Morocco and Guinea; cloth, tea, rice, millet, maize, ivory and kola nuts from Senegal and Upper Senegal and Niger.

(c) Customs and Tariffs

The only Custom House is at Port Étienne, and as at present every effort is made to encourage traders to come there by privileged treatment, its operations are negligible. The salt used for the fishing industry is imported from the Canaries, but no duty is charged upon it.

(D) FINANCE

(a) Public Finance

The financial position of Mauretania becomes increasingly satisfactory as the pacification of the country proceeds. The local revenue has to be supplemented from the General Budget for French West Africa, but the subvention is not now as large as it used to be, and it is hoped that in the end the Protectorate will dispense with it altogether. It was inevitable that, during the first years of occupation, expenses should be heavy and receipts uncertain. In the estimates for 1913 a sum of £68,568 was allowed for receipts, and the same for expenses. In actual fact, the revenue collected amounted to £34,706, which with the Government subvention of £36,840, made a total of £71,546. The expenses, on the other hand, totalled only £66,163, so that there was a balance of £5,383.

The chief local sources of income are taxes paid by the Moors and the negroid population. The latter pay 4 fr. per head on every person over the age of ten. The Moors resident in the Protectorate pay the *zekkat*, one-fortieth of their flocks and herds, and the *ashur*, one-tenth of their crops. Moors from outside who drive their beasts into the Protectorate for pasture pay the *ussuru*, which is equivalent to the *zekkat*. In 1913 the receipts from the *zekkat* and *ashur* amounted to £21,805, or 62 per cent. of the whole local revenue.

The principal heads of revenue for 1913 were as follows:—¹

	£
<i>Zekkat</i> and <i>ashur</i>	21,805
Head tax	6,371
Permits, licences, &c.	654
Fines and confiscations	2,306
Payment from the Emir of Trarza for the exploitation of salt	100
Market dues, &c.	453
Miscellaneous	3,017
Total	34,706
Government subvention	36,840
Grand total	71,546

(b) Currency

Notes of the Banque de l'Afrique Occidentale, and silver coins of the Latin Union, were in circulation in Mauretania during 1913. No other coins were in use.

¹ These amounts are calculated in round figures from the tables given in the *Rapport d'Ensemble Annuel* of the *Gouvernement général de l'Afrique Occidentale Française* for 1913. The total receipts there given, however, amount to 1,821,803 francs 95 centimes, or £72,852. This exceeds by roughly 32,000 francs the total obtained by adding the separate items. Either an item has been omitted or the addition has been incorrectly made.

(E) GENERAL REMARKS

If Mauretania is not such a land of absolute desolation as was imagined before it was explored at all, it is, nevertheless, not such a desirable acquisition in itself as was suggested at the time when the heavy expenses of its occupation demanded some justification. Though the exploration is still incomplete, enough is known to make it unlikely that any considerable source of natural wealth is still awaiting discovery. -Future possibilities, therefore, are confined within obvious limits. Improved agricultural methods and continued peace would enable the maximum return to be obtained from the fertile lands near the river and in the Adrar and Tagant. The fisheries will probably rise steadily in importance. Some day the salt of the south-western *sebkas* may be more fully utilized. For the rest, the land is sterile and scantily populated, and it seems inevitable that its value should continue to be, as it is to-day, military rather than commercial.

APPENDIX

EXTRACTS FROM TREATIES BETWEEN FRANCE AND SPAIN FOR THE DELIMITATION OF THEIR POSSESSIONS IN WEST AFRICA.

I.—CONVENTION OF JUNE 27, 1900.

Art. I.—Sur la côte du Sahara, la limite entre les possessions Françaises et Espagnoles suivra une ligne qui, partant du point indiqué par la carte de détail (A) juxtaposée à la carte formant l'Annexe 2 à la présente Convention, sur la côte occidentale de la péninsule du Cap Blanc, entre l'extrémité de ce cap et la baie de l'ouest, gagnera le milieu de la dite péninsule, puis, en divisant celle-ci par moitié autant que le permettra le terrain, remontera au nord jusqu'au point de rencontre avec le parallèle $21^{\circ} 20'$ de latitude nord. La frontière se continuera à l'est sur le $21^{\circ} 20'$ de latitude nord jusqu'à l'intersection de ce parallèle avec le méridien $15^{\circ} 20'$ ouest de Paris (13° ouest de Greenwich). De ce point, la ligne de démarcation s'élèvera dans la direction du nord-ouest en décrivant, entre les méridiens $15^{\circ} 20'$ et $16^{\circ} 20'$ ouest de Paris (13° et 14° ouest de Greenwich), une courbe qui sera tracée de façon à laisser à la France, avec leurs dépendances, les salines de la région d'Idjil, de la rive extérieure desquelles la frontière se tiendra à une distance d'au moins 20 kilom. Du point de rencontre de la dite courbe avec le méridien $15^{\circ} 20'$ ouest de Paris (13° ouest de Greenwich), la frontière gagnera aussi directement que possible l'intersection du tropique du cancer avec le méridien $14^{\circ} 20'$ ouest de Paris (12° ouest de Greenwich), et se prolongera sur ce dernier méridien dans la direction du nord.

Il est entendu que, dans la région du Cap Blanc, la délimitation qui devra y être effectuée par la Commission Spéciale visée à l'Article VIII de la présente Convention, s'opérera de façon que la partie occidentale de la péninsule, y compris la baie de l'ouest, soit attribuée à l'Espagne, et que le Cap Blanc proprement dit et la partie orientale de la même péninsule demeurent à la France.

II.—CONVENTION OF OCTOBER 3, 1904.

Art. 5.—Pour compléter la délimitation indiquée par l'article 1^{er} de la convention du 27 juin, 1900, il est entendu que la démarcation entre les sphères d'influence française et espagnole partira de l'intersection du méridien $14^{\circ} 20'$ ouest de Paris avec le 26° de

latitude nord, qu'elle suivra vers l'est jusqu'à sa rencontre avec le méridien 11° ouest de Paris. Elle remontera ce méridien jusqu'à sa rencontre avec l'Oued Draa, puis le thalweg de l'Oued Draa jusqu'à sa rencontre avec le méridien 10° ouest de Paris, enfin le méridien 10° ouest de Paris jusqu'à la ligne de faite entre les bassins de l'Oued Draa et de l'Oued Sous, et suivra, dans la direction de l'ouest, la ligne de faite entre les bassins de l'Oued Draa et de l'Oued Sous, puis entre les bassins côtiers de l'Oued Mesa et de l'Oued Noun jusqu'au point le plus rapproché de la source de l'Oued Tazeroualt.

Cette délimitation est conforme à la délimitation tracée sur la carte No. 2 déjà citée et annexée à la présente convention.

III.—CONVENTION OF NOVEMBER 27, 1912.

Au sud du Maroc, la frontière des zones française et espagnole sera définie par le thalweg de l'Oued Draa, qu'elle remontera depuis la mer jusqu'à sa rencontre avec le méridien 11° ouest de Paris; elle suivra ce méridien vers le sud jusqu'à sa rencontre avec le parallèle 27° 40' de latitude nord. Au sud de ce parallèle, les articles V et VI de la Convention du 3 octobre, 1904, resteront applicables. Les régions marocaines situées au nord et à l'est de la délimitation visée dans le présent paragraphe appartiendront à la zone française.

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I. GEOGRAPHY PHYSICAL AND POLITICAL

(1) POSITION AND FRONTIERS

THE colony of Upper Senegal and Niger,¹ with the Military Territory of the Niger, forms the north-eastern part of French West Africa. The boundaries of the colony have in some directions not been clearly delimited, but they may be said to be roughly between 12° west and 12° east longitude, and 9° 20' and 23° north latitude. The district has an area of about 802,000 square miles (Upper Senegal and Niger, 300,000 square miles; Military Territory, 502,000 square miles).

Upper Senegal and Niger, including the Military Territory, includes more than two-thirds of the course of the Niger, the country enclosed in the Great Bend, and a Saharan region north of Timbuktu. The Military Territory of the Niger includes the Adghagh, Air and Damergu districts, with the desert between the Niger on the west and the regions of Tibesti and Chad on the east.

Considerable use has been made of natural features in determining the boundaries, but these often follow the frontiers of old native states and do not correspond with ethnic or linguistic divisions. The lines separating French from English and German possessions, and dividing the Algerian from the West African Sahara, are almost wholly artificial.

Upper Senegal and Niger and the Military Territory are bordered on the north by the Algerian Sahara. The frontier, which has not been delimited, starts from the neighbourhood of the Bir el-Ksio

¹ The colony of Upper Senegal and Niger was divided by official decree early in 1920, when the new colony of Upper Volta was formed, extending from the N.W. frontier of Dahomey in the E. to the N.E. frontier of the Ivory Coast in the W., its northernmost limit being in about 16° N.

(23° 3' N., 7° W.) and runs east-south-east to that of In Uzel and Tin Zawaten (about 20° N., 3° E.), and then north-east to the Libyan frontier on the Azjer hills south of Ghat.

The western boundary of the colony, largely undefined, starts from the vicinity of Bir el-Ksio, runs in a south-westerly direction through uninhabited desert, separating Upper Senegal and Niger from Mauretania, till, somewhat south of the 16th parallel, it strikes the course of the Karakor or Tarkagut, which it follows from Fete Diulle as far as its confluence with the Senegal near Kabu, a little below Ambidedi. From this point the Faleme river, from its confluence with the Senegal to above Satadugu, forms the boundary between Upper Senegal and Niger and the neighbouring colony of Senegal.

The southern boundary begins at this point and is formed first by the frontier of French Guinea. It proceeds eastward on an irregular course in the neighbourhood of the 12th parallel, crossing the Bafing (the western branch of the Upper Senegal) near Tamba, and the Bakhoy (the eastern branch of the same) about the level of Niagassola, and striking the Niger 31 miles below Sigiri. Thence the boundary passes south-east, following the course of the Sankarani for 38 miles on the way, to a point 10 miles north-west of Maninian, where the boundaries of French Guinea, the Ivory Coast, and Upper Senegal and Niger meet (in about 10° 5' N., 7° 44' W.).

From this spot the boundary separating Upper Senegal and Niger from the Ivory Coast runs a very irregular eastern course about the 10th parallel, following on its way for 10 miles the course of a second Bafing, for 25 that of the Bagoë, and for 60 that of the Leraba, and finally striking the Gold Coast frontier and the Black Volta in about 9° 30' north latitude.

The next section of the boundary, that lying between Upper Senegal and Niger and the Northern Territories of the Gold Coast, ascends the Black Volta to about 11° north latitude and then runs approximately due

east to the neighbourhood of the White Volta, after which it strikes somewhat north-east to the frontier of Togoland. The boundary between Upper Senegal and Niger and Togoland runs east-south-east for 78 miles, reaching the parallel 11° near Pungu, and following it to about $0^{\circ} 56'$ east longitude. Near this point the north frontier of Dahomey begins, and the boundary runs approximately east to the Atakora massif, which it then follows north-east to the Mekru. Reaching this at $11^{\circ} 30'$ north latitude, it descends the river as far as its confluence with the Niger and the Niger itself to the frontier of Nigeria.

The section of the boundary separating the Military Territory from Nigeria leaves the Niger at Dole, crosses the 12th parallel at about $3^{\circ} 40'$ east longitude, runs north to about latitude $12^{\circ} 35'$, leaving Junju to the west, and then trends north-north-east and north, passing east of Beibei and Nassarawa to $13^{\circ} 30'$ north latitude. Thence the boundary goes east-north-east to a point south of Bassasaga, and crosses the 5th meridian at $13^{\circ} 45'$ north latitude. The frontier now runs east, passing about 3 miles south of Birni Nkonni, and north of Sabon Birni, and then south-east to the 13th parallel, which is reached at 7° east longitude. Curving north, and leaving Katsena and Daura in British territory, it then strikes south, crossing the 9th meridian east at $12^{\circ} 45'$ north latitude, runs east for about 40 miles, and then trends east-north-east to a point 3 miles south of Zumba. From Zumba it drops south-east to the Komadugu Yobe (Waube) river, which forms the Anglo-French boundary from Dushi to its mouth in Lake Chad.

The eastern boundary of Upper Senegal and Niger, which separates the colony from that of French Equatorial Africa, appears to be quite undefined, but follows in general a northerly line from Lake Chad across the desert of Sahara as far as the very vague frontiers of Tripoli.

Between Upper Senegal and Niger and the Military Territory of the Niger, the administrative boundary

runs from the point at which the Mekru river becomes the northern boundary of Dahomey in an irregular north-westerly direction to the Niger, which it crosses 50 miles south-west of Timbuktu, thereafter losing itself in the Sahara.

(2) SURFACE AND RIVER SYSTEM

Surface

The surface consists generally of a series of plains with a gentle upward slope from north and west to south and east, separated by low groups of hills, and forms a transitional belt between the Sahara and the forest region surrounding the Gulf of Guinea. These plains are traversed by the great river valleys of the Niger with its tributaries and the upper waters of the Senegal, which form important natural lines of communication and are the chief areas of settlement and cultivation. The principal mountain systems are in the south.

The chief mountain district commences in the colony of Senegal in the Futa Jalon massif, and this system is continued into Upper Senegal and Niger by the steep range of the Tamba-Ura, which closes the rocky valley of the Faleme to the east and connects with a system of lower heights which extend north to Segu and enclose the upper valleys of the Bakhoy, Baule and Niger. Another spur of the eastern Futa Jalon separates the upper Niger valley from the Bani; while a third, the so-called Volta Plateau, forms an interior curve within the Niger Bend, following the chief arm of the Volta, attains its greatest height (about 3,000 ft.) between Duenza and Hombori, and trends south-east to the Dahomey frontier in a series of decreasing ridges.

With these exceptions, the surface of Upper Senegal and Niger is a granite and sandstone plateau, with little surface relief. The wide alluvial valley of the Niger traverses it from west to east in a great arc, the

celebrated Niger Bend, and in the lacustrine region between Mopti and Timbuktu this valley becomes a wide marshy plain of great fertility.

The surface of the Military Territory is largely desert, sparsely populated by Tuareg nomads. North and north-east of the Niger, the Adghagh and Air highlands form two compact massifs which, though surrounded by the rainless Sahara, yet come within the zone of light but regular rains.

The Adghagh is a tableland about 130 miles wide and 2,000-2,500 ft. high. The *wadis* which traverse it are the only habitable parts.

The Air, midway between Tibesti and the Niger Bend, is an isolated massif 6,000 square miles in area, broken by narrow ravines, and crossed from north to south by a line of volcanic crests. Agadez, the chief town of the Sahara and once a rich centre of trade, lies on its southern slope. Though the valleys are moderately fertile, the region is hardly suited to a sedentary population.

The third populated region of the Military Territory, Damergu and Demagherim, lies south of Air on the northern frontier of Nigeria. It is a rolling country of low hills and often marshy valleys, transitional between Sahara and Sudan. Much of the land in the south is fertile, producing immense crops of millet. The region is clothed with permanent pasture, but depends for its water supply on wells of great depth. Zinder, the capital of the Military Territory, in the south of Damergu, lies in a sandy region dotted with granite hills and boulders. The surrounding soil, though poor, is highly cultivated, and there is good pasture to the south.

River System

The chief rivers of Upper Senegal and Niger are the Niger itself, which runs for the greater part of its course through the country, and the upper waters of the Black and of the White Volta, the former of which

forms part of the boundary between Upper Senegal and Niger and the Gold Coast Colony.

The *Niger* traverses the colony in the great arc of the Niger Bend, running north-east to Timbuktu, and thence downwards to the Nigerian frontier. Entering the colony at Banko on the frontiers of French Guinea, the great river runs, sometimes through rapids, to Kulikoro, where it becomes a stream about a mile wide, with banks 20-25 feet high. At Mopti it receives its chief affluent, the Bani, which has a course of 380 miles, draining the regions of Buguni and Sikasso. With its volume almost doubled, the Niger now enters, at Lake Debo, the lacustrine region which extends from Mopti to Timbuktu. This is a vast depression about 60 miles wide covered by a network of lakes, channels, and *marigots*, the whole of which is inundated during the floods. The principal lakes are those of Debo, Korienze, and Fati. North of the river, between Timbuktu and Ras el-Ma, are the Saharan lakes, of which the chief is Fagibini, nearly 70 miles long by 12 broad. From Timbuktu to Ansongo the Niger flows between sandy banks, interrupted at Tosaye by a rocky gorge about 500 feet wide. From Ansongo to Niame the river is a labyrinth of rocks and islands, and is broken by numerous rapids. The current is swift, although the river, with an average width of 700 yards, flows in places through malarial swamps. From Say, a navigable reach of 300 miles extends over the borders of Nigeria as far as Bussa.

The Niger floods depend upon the rainfall in the upper courses of the Niger and the Bani. They begin to be felt in the upper reaches in June, as the result of the first rains, and reach their maximum at various places lower down the river at correspondingly later times, the highest flood point in the Ansongo-Niame stretch not being reached till the following February. The maximum rise recorded at Kulikoro is 21 feet; the average, 17 feet. When the floods are at their height the whole interior delta and the low

plains forming the *cercle* of Jenne are completely submerged, and the waters spread over an area of about 90 miles in width. The waters begin to retreat between Mopti and Timbuktu in February and March, and by May at Sansanding there is often less than one foot of water.

The navigable reaches of the Middle Niger extend from Kulikoro to Ansongo, a distance of 870 miles. There is a regular service of French Government steamers, launches, and steel barges, of which particulars are given below, p. 24. There is also considerable native traffic at all times of the year.

The upper waters of the *Black Volta*, or *West Volta*—the longer of the two streams which together form the Volta river of the Gold Coast—flow for some distance through Upper Senegal and Niger. It has a course parallel to that of the Mid-Niger, forming a small interior bend which runs north-east to Kury and then east and south-east to the Gold Coast frontier. The Black Volta has a strong current and numerous rapids, but is navigable from June to March inclusive by flat canoes of 2 to 5 tons burthen for about 215 miles below Kury.

(3) CLIMATE

The climate is transitional between the Saharan and equatorial types. There are two seasons, the dry and the rainy. Humidity is least and variation of temperature greatest in the vicinity of the desert, while the heaviest and longest rains are experienced in the South Sudan. The dry season begins in November or December, and ends about May or June, and at this time a hard north-east wind is usual in the Niger district. Spells of east wind, most common in March or April, but also occurring in the Niger valley between October and December, coincide with intense dry heat. The rainy season begins in the Niger valley in May. The rains attain their full force in August and September, but continue into November in the Sudan.

Temperature.—The January means are 72° F. (22° C.) at Timbuktu, and 74° F. (23·5° C.) at Wagadugu. The nights are fresh and may not exceed 50° or 55° F. (10° to 13° C.). In the Niger region thick fogs, due to the evaporation of flood water, are common in December and January. The thermometer begins to rise in January, and from March to May is a period of intense heat, though slight rains begin in March and April in the Niger and Volta valleys. Mean April and May temperatures of 95° F. (35° C.) at Timbuktu and 88° F. (31° C.) at Wagadugu are experienced. June is a transitional month, usually marked in the Sudan by heavy thunderstorms. The stifling heats of the rains attain their maximum in October at Wagadugu with a mean of 81° (27·5° C.).

Rainfall.—The rains decrease in amount from south to north and from west to east. In the South Sudan they last until November, but in Timbuktu, Adghagh, and Aïr are reduced to a few scanty storms. In Upper Senegal, July and August are the rainiest months, though only 8·27 inches (210 mm.) fall at Timbuktu. South of the 14th parallel N., the amount is greatly increased, and 32·12 inches (816 mm.) fall at Wagadugu. Further east the Saharan regime is approached, and the rains greatly diminish.

(4) SANITARY CONDITIONS

No part of the colony is really suited to permanent European occupation, but the conditions can be tolerated if reasonable precautions are taken and no arduous labour is attempted. In the west and south the enervating heat of the rains, and in the Military Territory the high spring temperatures, are very trying to settlers. Health conditions seem to be better in Upper Senegal and Niger than in the neighbouring colony of Senegal, and are commonly best where the dry Saharan climate is felt and the north wind experienced. Europeans frequently suffer from dysentery, due to bad water, bilious fever, and rheumatism, but malaria

claims far fewer victims than in Senegal, and in the drier air of the Military Territory is said to be almost unknown.

In Upper Senegal and Niger sleeping sickness, which is such a scourge to the natives in the neighbouring colony, is confined to the valleys of the Volta, and is said to be unknown in the Military Territory. Small-pox, also prevalent among the natives, is giving way before vaccination. Leprosy, especially near the Niger, elephantiasis, guinea-worm, and other tropical diseases exist, but are seldom contracted by Europeans.

(5) RACE AND LANGUAGE

The population of this vast region consists:—

(a) Of pure or nearly pure Hamites. These are all immigrants from the north, and are mostly found in the Sahara and Sahel. They are generally pastoral peoples of more or less nomadic habit, and comprise three main groups: Tuaregs, Moors, and Peuls.

(b) Of innumerable negroid races. Pure negroes are only found on the coast and in the extreme north. These black races are sedentary village dwellers, chiefly agriculturists, and great difference of opinion exists as to their classification.

Hamite Races

Tuaregs.—The Tuaregs are Berber nomads found throughout the Sahara, from Algeria to Timbuktu and Zinder. They inhabit the Adghagh, the North Niger Bend as far south as 15° north, the Air, and Damergu. Much of their racial purity has been lost through marriage with other peoples. Tamahek is spoken by the Tuaregs of the desert, Fula by those of the Bend, and Hausa by those in Air. Their numbers cannot be accurately estimated, but certainly exceed 100,000.

Moors.—The Moors, chiefly of mixed Berber and Arab stock, are pastoral nomads and camel herdsmen, ranging the Azawad and Hodh, and extending into

Mauretania and Rio de Oro, where they form the bulk of the population. The principal tribes connected with this region, each with numerous divisions, are the Kuntas of the Azawad, the Berabishs of the Azawad, and the Beni Hassen of the Hodh. All speak Arabic.

The Moorish tribes appear to number about 16,000 in Senegal, and over 100,000 in Upper Senegal and Niger; but their constant movements make even an approximate estimate impossible.

Peuls.—The origin of the Peuls is a subject of controversy, but they are probably of Libyan or Semitic stock, though now to some extent crossed with negroid blood. After various migrations, the Peuls appear to have established themselves in the Futa Jalon, where they became dominant. They spread thence through West Africa, being found in scattered groups throughout Senegal, the Sudan, Gambia, and French Guinea. Their approximate numbers are 120,000 in Senegal and 586,000 in Upper Senegal and Niger.

The Peul, or Fula, language has affinities with the negro tongues.

Negro and Negroid Races

Only a few of these can be described.

Tukulers.—The Tukulers are the dominant black race of East Senegal, forming compact groups in the Faleme basin, Kaarta, Futa Toro, and the region between Kayes and Timbuktu. They have two branches: the warlike Torodos, described as violent, suspicious, and arrogant, and the Futankers, a pastoral and agricultural people of more docile disposition. The Torodos enlist in large numbers in the French Senegalese troops.

The Tukulers speak the Peul language in its purity and are regarded by some philologists as its originators. In Senegal alone they number about 131,000.

Mandes.—The Mandes, sometimes called, from their most important group, the Mandingos, are a great

family of negroid peoples, related by their dialects, and forming nearly half the black population of Upper Senegal and Niger. They also extend into Senegal, Gambia, and French Guinea. Considerable uncertainty appears to exist as to their classification; but the best authorities distinguish three main groups: those of the north, the centre, and the south. Their total numbers exceed $1\frac{1}{2}$ millions.

In the north the most important divisions are the Sarakoles, Diulas, and Bozos.

The Mandes of the centre comprise the important groups of Mandingos, Bambaras, and Fulankes, with the Khassonkes and Kagoros.

The Mandingos, or Malinkas, are compactly grouped between the Faleme and Niger south of the railway, and are probably the present representatives of the original Mande stock. Their language, Mandingo, is spoken by over a million persons, and they have important colonies in South Ferlo and Kasamanse. The Mandingos, who are a fine and well-made people, appear to number about 175,000.

The Bambaras, or Banmanas, are now the most numerous of the Mande races, forming nearly half their total number. They are the most vigorous and intelligent of the Sudan peoples, and were preferred to all others as slaves by the Tukulers. Their chief centres of distribution are Kaarta and the Niger Valley south of the lakes, but they also have colonies in the Sahel, and in the Niger Bend east of the Bani. Their numbers are about 560,000.

The Fulankes extend from Bafulabe to Sikasso. They are chiefly Moslems, and number about 106,000.

The Mandes of the south have as their principal divisions the Samos, the Samorhos, the Dialonkes, the Sias or Bobo Diulas, and the Senufos, sometimes classed as a distinct family. The Samos (75,200) inhabit the Niger Bend north of Kury; the Samorhos (23,700) the region between Sikasso and Bobo-Diulasso; the Dialonkes (9,800) the country south of Kita and Satadugu; the Sias (6,000) the Bobo Diulasso district; the Senufos

(343,400) the district between Kutiala, Bobo Diulasso, and Sikasso.

The Songhays.—The Songhays are a great historic people, and were once the rulers over a vast negro empire which included the whole Sahara. They are now found chiefly in the Niger valley between Mopti and Bamba, and form part of the population of Timbuktu, where their language is spoken. Another branch, the Jermas, inhabits the East Niger between Burem and Naime. A colony of Songhays is also established at Agadez, where their language is current. Their numbers in Upper Senegal and Niger exceed 101,000, but those in the Military Territory are not computed.

Volta Peoples.—These are the remains of the aboriginal Sudan population, now scattered in the Niger Bend and South Sudan, and forming about half the inhabitants of Upper Senegal and Niger. They are almost entirely uncivilized, and are divided into numerous distinct though linguistically related groups. Of these the most important are the Habbes or Tombos, the Mossis, the Gurunsis, and the Lobis. All are warlike and primitive peoples, more or less hostile to strangers. The Volta races probably number over 2 millions.

A short account of the tribes peculiar to Senegal will be found in *Senegal*, No. 102 of this series.

Language

Each ethnic group has its own language. Arabic is spoken by the Moors, Tamahek by most of the Tuaregs, Fula or Peul by the Peuls. Among the negroid population 30 tongues and 31 dialects are current in Upper Senegal and Niger alone, the most important being those of the Mande group (Mandingo) and Volta group (Mossi). Certain languages, however, have achieved a marked dominance. Thus Wolof has become the commercial dialect of Senegal, Mandingo of the West Niger Bend, Hausa of the East Niger Bend and Damergu, the line of separation being in the neigh-

bourhood of Wagadugu. Fula, spoken by the Peuls and Tukulers, has also spread to other races of the West Sudan, and is used by many Tuaregs of the Bend.

(6) POPULATION

Distribution

The region as a whole is sparsely populated, having under 8 inhabitants to the square mile (Upper Senegal and Niger nearly 17, Military Territory just over 2). This is partly the result of the unequal water supply, which in the north and centre concentrates the population in the river valleys. The Sudan south of 12° north latitude, however, has a high proportion of fertile land with ample water supply, and hence the density of the population increases from north to south, rising in Mossi to 38 per square mile.

Towns and Villages

The majority of the inhabitants, with the exception of the Moors and Tuaregs, are village dwellers, and there are very few large towns. The only considerable town is Wagadugu, the capital of the Mossi country (population 19,317). In the Niger region, Segou has 8,360 inhabitants, Bamako 7,189, Jenne 6,536, and Timbuktu 6,334. The population of Zinder, the largest town of the Military Territory, is said to be about 6,000, while Agadez, the ancient capital of Air, said to have had at its zenith 50,000 inhabitants, now contains barely 1,000.

All these are native towns, the French settlements being confined to the coast of the neighbouring colony of Senegal.

Movement

No complete figures of the native birth- and death-rates are available; and the impossibility of obtaining an accurate census of uncivilised populations makes any computation of probable increase or decrease of

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small value. Such figures as we possess suggest that the general native population is rising, as we might expect it to do under the improved conditions resulting from French control, while the town populations have increased considerably. In 1911 the total population of Upper Senegal and Niger was 5,096,340, of whom 1,100 were Europeans, as against 4,470,991 in 1908, of whom 800 were Europeans; and of the Military Territory, 1,074,121 in 1911, of whom 300 were Europeans, as against a total of 850,000 in 1908. The population of Upper Senegal and Niger is believed to have increased to 5,645,355 by 1916.

II. POLITICAL HISTORY

CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

- 1880 Beginning of French advance to Middle Niger.
- 1881 Treaty with Ahmadu; protectorate over Futa Jalon.
- 1883 Establishment of post of Bamako on the Niger.
- 1886-87 Treaties with Samori and Ahmadu.
- 1888 Final acquisition of Futa Jalon: Binger's expedition to territories within the Niger Bend (1888-89).
- 1889 Further treaty with Samori: partial settlement of Gold Coast boundary (August 10).
- 1891 Final overthrow of Ahmadu: occupation of Samori's capital.
- 1892 Settlement of boundary with Liberia.
- 1894 Occupation of Timbuktu.
- 1894-95 Ineffective campaign against Samori from Ivory Coast.
- 1897 Rivalry with Great Britain. Occupation of Bussa and Nikki. Advance to Nile. Settlement of boundary with Togoland.
- 1898 Settlement with Great Britain of Lower Niger boundary (June 14, 1898): final overthrow of Samori.
- 1899 Settlement with Great Britain in regard to Nile valley (March 21, 1899).
- 1900 Lake Chad and Shari districts secured by defeat and death of Rabah (April 22).
- 1901 Fadl'-Allah killed at Gujba, in Nigeria. Advance to Dikoa, in Cameroon.
- 1904 Boundary with Nigeria adjusted in favour of France. Reorganization of colony of Upper Senegal and Niger as part of Government-General of West Africa.
- 1906 Further definition of Niger boundary.
- 1912 Adjustment of boundary with Togoland (September 28).

(1) ACQUISITION OF TERRITORY

THE impetus given by the victories¹ of General Faidherbe to the extension of French control on the Upper Senegal and the Middle Niger was for the time being counteracted by the disasters of the Franco-German war, and it was not until 1880 that the French again resumed activity in the direction of the Niger. At that

¹ See *Senegal*, No. 102 of this series, pp. 9, 10.

time the chief political power between the Upper Senegal and the Middle Niger was the kingdom of Ahmadu, son of El Haj Omar, Faidherbe's opponent, who ruled from Segu to Kaarta, and represented the old Fula Empire. On the Middle Niger a raider chief named Samori had made himself master of a kingdom founded on the Mandingo tribes of Mohammedanised negroes. In 1880 Captain Gallieni surveyed a route for a railway from the navigable Senegal to the Niger, which he reached at Bamako. During the hostilities with Ahmadu which followed Kita was taken, and on March 21, 1881, Ahmadu signed a treaty, which was held by France to establish her protectorate of the left bank of the Niger. By 1883 Bamako had been definitely founded as a French post, and Samori's attacks were beaten off. In 1885-86 Colonel Frey again defeated him, and compelled him to sign a boundary treaty¹ (March 28, 1886), but was immediately confronted with a Mohammedan rising in the occupied territory; this he suppressed.

Gallieni returned in 1887, and on March 23 he compelled Samori to surrender the left bank of the Tinkisso, and the left bank of the Niger from the junction of the Tinkisso down to Bamako. On May 12 Ahmadu accepted complete French protection; but an attempt by Caron to occupy Timbuktu proved unsuccessful. A treaty of March 30, 1888, finally secured Futa Jalon (which had been first brought under protection in 1881). In the same year Captain Binger started from Bamako to explore the unknown tract of country lying within the great northern bend of the Niger. After securing treaties which brought under French protection the countries of Tieba, Kong, Jimini, Anno, and Bonduku, he made his way down the Camoe (Komoe) river to the French settlement of Grand Bassam on the Ivory Coast.

¹ According to C. 6701, p. 3, Samori then accepted a protectorate, but the treaty of March 23, 1887 (*ibid.*, pp. 22, 23), appears to be the first real acceptance of this relationship.

The natural result of Captain Binger's journey was to open up the hinterland of this district, and to secure the continuity of French territory on the coast and on the Upper Niger, at the expense of Sierra Leone and Liberia. On February 21, 1889,¹ Samori was compelled to agree that the Jeliba (Niger) should form the boundary of his possessions. In 1890, however, Ahmadu made a bid for independence; but in the following year Colonel Archinard, operating against him, captured Segu on the right bank of the Niger below Bamako, and Nioro, the capital of Kaarta (250 miles north-west of Segu). The defeat of Ahmadu left the way open for an advance on Samori, whose capital, Bissandugu, was occupied in April. The advance down the Niger was steadily continued; in 1892 a boundary line was fixed with Liberia; in 1893 Jenne was occupied; and in 1894 Timbuktu was also occupied, the defeat of Colonel Bonnier by the Tuaregs in an ambushade being effectively avenged by Colonel Joffre. Samori, however, continued to give trouble; he menaced both Sierra Leone and the Ivory Coast, with the result that in December 1893 an unfortunate collision between French and British forces occurred at Waima.² In 1894-95, a force under Colonel Monteil was sent to protect the Kongs against Samori; but it made poor progress, and the commander was recalled. In 1898, however, a further advance by Lieutenant Woelfel from the Ivory Coast resulted in the overthrow and exile of that dangerous chief.

(2) FRANCE AND THE UNITED KINGDOM

There still remained to be decided the extent of French control of the Lower Niger and of the Eastern

¹ Treaty in Annex F (No. 2) of C. 6701, pp. 24-26. On p. 24 the date is incorrectly printed as February 21, 1891. The correct year is given on pp. 3, 25, 26. Article VIII of this treaty bound Samori to do his utmost to direct goods from his country to French ports.

² See Cd. 1076 for the award of the Arbitrator, who decided that the blame rested largely with the French forces.

Sudan. The Arrangement of August 10, 1889, with Great Britain, left the spheres of the two Powers north of 9° north latitude in the region of the Gold Coast and the Niger indeterminate; and a declaration of August 5, 1890, recognised the sphere of influence of France south of her Mediterranean possessions up to a line drawn from Say on the Niger to Barrua on Lake Chad, though a simultaneous exchange of Notes recorded the fact that the agreement was to be without prejudice to any claims which Turkey might have to the south of Tripoli. France made definite efforts to advance in both directions. In 1897 Bussa and Nikki were occupied, and preparations were made for the advance by Marchand from the Congo, which ultimately led him to Fashoda.

More friendly relations between France and Great Britain were, however, soon afterwards established. By the Convention of June 14, 1898, a definite frontier was laid down from the 9th parallel to the Niger, and from the Niger to Lake Chad. This agreement allowed France to advance to a point ten miles north of Illo, and permitted the retention by her of Nikki, of a great part of Borgu, and of some parts of Gando. Though obliged to withdraw from Bussa, and being thus excluded from the navigable waters of the Lower Niger, she was allowed to lease two small plots of land on the river below Bussa for purely commercial purposes. The Declaration of March 21, 1899, by assigning a boundary which preserved the province of Darfur to the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan, debarred France from access to the Nile Valley. In return, she secured exclusive powers of extension in the kingdoms of Chad, Baghirmi, Wadai, and Kanem.

It remained, however, to effect the subjugation of Rabah, formerly a lieutenant of Zubeir Pasha, who had proclaimed himself Sultan of Bornu in 1893, and who was prepared to resist to the utmost the establishment of French supremacy over the Lake Chad kingdoms. Expeditions were despatched against this warlike chief from the French Congo under Gentil;

from Algeria under Foureau; and also from Senegal. The last-named expedition met with disaster, due to the misconduct of two of its leaders; but in 1900 Rabah was finally defeated and slain. His son, Fadl'-Allah, retreated to the territory on the Niger ascribed to Great Britain under the Convention of 1898. He was pursued thither by a French force and killed in 1901. The French continued their advance and entered German territory at Dikoa, but retired on the approach of German troops. The episode showed the necessity of frontier delimitation, and the Anglo-French Convention of April 8, 1904, provided a new frontier, which was designed to facilitate communication between French West African and Equatorial possessions.

The boundary between the French Sudan and the Gold Coast was defined by an exchange of Notes of March 18—April 25, 1904, supplemented by a further exchange of Notes of May 24—July 19, 1906. The boundary east of the Niger was determined by the Convention of May 29, 1906, supplemented by an exchange of Notes of May 17—July 1, 1911.¹

(3) BOUNDARY WITH TOGOLAND

The boundary with Togoland was defined by the Convention of July 23, 1897, and definitely marked out by the Declaration of September 28, 1912.²

¹ Cd. 6013.

² *State Papers*, cvi, 974-1008.

III. SOCIAL AND POLITICAL CONDITIONS

(1) RELIGIOUS

RELIGIOUS conditions are described in *French West Africa*, No. 100 of this series.

(2) POLITICAL

The French Sudan originally included territory which in 1902 was assigned to the West African colonies; in 1904 it became part of the Government-General of West Africa, the protected territories on the left bank of the Senegal being combined with the old colony of Senegal. The new colony of Upper Senegal and Niger, then constituted, was made up of the old territories of Upper Senegal and Middle Niger, together with the first, second, and third Military Territories, and was organized in two parts: one, which included the former second Military Territory, under civil administration, and the other, the Military Territory of the Niger, corresponding to the first and third Military Territories. The seat of government of the Military Territory of the Niger was at Timbuktu, and was under the control of a Commandant, subordinate to the Lieutenant-Governor of the Colony. Since 1910, however, the position has been altered. Civil administration has been extended to Timbuktu and ~~other~~ territories on the right bank of the Niger, and the Military Territory, now pushed back to the north and east, and augmented since 1916 by the inclusion of the region of Tibesti, is administered by a Commissioner of the Government-General at Zinder, under the immediate direction of the Governor-General; the budget of the territory is also subject to the control of the Governor-General.

In one important matter the judicial regime in force

in West Africa generally is modified in its application to the region of Timbuktu and the Military Territory. The Courts of the subdivisions must be presided over by a European officer, and the assessors have only a consultative, and not a deliberative, voice. Moreover, in accordance with the distinction between Mohammedans and non-Mohammedans and between nomad and sedentary tribes, the assessors must be so chosen that in the event of parties under different systems coming before the court, an assessor representing each system shall be present.

(3) MILITARY ORGANIZATION

See *French West Africa*.

(4) PUBLIC EDUCATION

See *French West Africa*.

IV. ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

(A) MEANS OF COMMUNICATION

(a) Roads

In Upper Senegal and Niger the French Government has created a network of roads connecting the chief centres with the railway or the river. The greater number of them are merely tracks with ditches for draining off the water. Although they have no artificial foundation, some of these tracks, such as those from Kayes to the Faleme, from Kita to Bamako, from Mopti by Bandiagara to Wagadugu, can be used for motor traffic in the dry season; but in the wet season they are impassable, except for riders who can either swim the water-courses or cross them in ferries. The best-built road is that from Bambako to Bobo-Diulasso, *via* Buguni, which is, after the railway and the River Niger, the most important artery of traffic in the colony.

In the Military Territory of the Niger the chief tracks are the following:—

- (1) Gaya to N'Gigmi, *via* Dogonduchi, Madawa, Tessawa, Zinder and Maine-Soroa (1,406 km.);
- (2) Gaya to Niame, *via* Dosso (289 km.);
- (3) Niame to Dogonduchi (244 km.);
- (4) Madawa to Tahua (147 km.);
- (5) Dogonduchi to Tahua (247 km.);
- (6) Tahua to Agadez (400 km.);
- (7) Madawa to Maradi (147 km.);
- (8) Maradi to Tessawa (116 km.);
- (9) Zinder to Agadez (385 km.);
- (10) Agadez to Bilma (610 km.);
- (11) Zinder to Gure (152 km.);
- (12) N'Gigmi to Bilma (500 km.);
- (13) Zinder to Kano (220 km.).

In Upper Senegal and Niger oxen are used for transport north of 12° north latitude in the wet season, and as far south as 10° north latitude in the dry; camels, which are unfortunately scarce, are used north of $14^{\circ} 5'$ north latitude; donkeys can be used in all parts.

Head portage is still generally employed in both Upper Senegal and Niger and the Military Territory, though it is not so common as formerly. Transport is to a great extent in the hands of the Moors. The natives do not use animals for hauling vehicles.

(b) *Rivers*

The Senegal.—The Senegal is fully treated in *Senegal*, No. 102 of this series.

The Niger.—The Sotuba rocks, between Bamako and Kulikoro, divide that part of the Niger which lies within the colony into two sections: (1) the Upper Niger, the section above Bamako, connected with the coast by the French Guinea railway from Konakri to Kurusa; (2) the Middle Niger, from Kulikoro to Ansongo, which is reached from the coast by the River Senegal and the railway from Kayes to Kulikoro.

On the Upper Niger the section from Kurusa in French Guinea to Kangaba, 275 km. in length, is navigable except for a month beginning towards the end of January; from Kangaba to Bamako, a distance of 90 km., navigation is more difficult, and is possible during a few months in the year only. The public services do not possess any means of transport on this part of the Niger, but the merchants of Bamako have formed a fleet of barges, which are available for the use of private persons and of the administration. The mining companies of the Sigiri district in French Guinea also have a tug and some barges.

The Middle Niger, between Kulikoro and Ansongo, is navigable from July to January by steamers

drawing about 3 ft., and from January to March by boats drawing 2 ft.; navigation is impossible between the end of March and the end of June, except by small barges half loaded. Between Kulikoro and Kabara, the port of Timbuktu, the Service de Navigation maintains a regular transport service, the extension of which to Ansongo is under consideration. The departure of steamers from Kulikoro is arranged to correspond with the arrival of the mails and passengers from Senegal. The Service de l'Intendance provides transport by barges from Timbuktu to Ansongo, and thence to Niame and Gaya. The ports of Segou, Diafarabe, Mopti, Niafunke and Timbuktu are served regularly by steamers.

The vessels operating on the Middle Niger seem adequate to deal with the present traffic.

During the three months of low water, March 15 to June 15, native canoes play an important part in the trade of the colony. They are primitive light craft of small draught, handled by two or three natives. They can cross all the shallows, and their numbers compensate for their small capacity. As the harvest in the valley takes place at the moment when the river goes down and can no longer be used by steamers or large barges, this native fleet is of the highest importance, and in a normal year it may bring as much as 3,000 tons of cereals to Kulikoro. To improve the bed of the river so as to render it navigable by steamers and barges at low-water season would be an arduous and costly undertaking, which would not be justified in the present economic state of the country.

Various tributaries of the Niger, such as the Bani, the Sankarani, the Tinkisso, and the Milo are navigable for part of their courses during the high-water season. Jenne is connected with the Niger both by the Bani and by a deep natural canal which joins it to the port of Koakuru.

The Black Volta.—The upper part of the Black Volta is navigable for about 350 km. south of Kury,

from June to March inclusive, by barges of not more than 5 tons burden.

(c) *Railways*

The partially constructed Thies—Kayes railway, 44 km. of which, from Ambidedi to Kayes, lies within the colony of Upper Senegal and Niger, is described in *Senegal*, No. 102 of this series.

The only railway which for its entire length lies within Upper Senegal and Niger is the Kayes—Niger line, which forms an important link between the rivers Senegal and Niger. It reaches the Niger at Bamako, and thence follows the river to its terminus at Kulkoro, the total length being 553 km. There is a branch to Medine, 2 km. in length, which leaves the main line at a point 10 km. from Kayes.

The railway was begun in 1881 and completed in 1904. The cost of construction was 49,570,177 francs (£1,982,807), of which 21,858,239 francs (£874,329) was paid by the French Treasury, while the remainder of the debt was to be discharged by annual subventions, contributed jointly by the French Treasury and the Government of French West Africa. At the rate of payment fixed the amount will not be paid off till 1928. In accordance with a law passed in 1907, the finances of this railway are treated in a separate budget attached to the General Budget of French West Africa. Profits are employed to maintain a reserve fund of a maximum of 1,500,000 francs to cover bad years, a similar fund of 1,500,000 francs for establishment works, and a floating capital of a maximum of 2,000,000 francs for general working expenses, any surplus being divided between the French Treasury and the General Treasury of French West Africa in proportion to their contributions towards the cost of construction. If there is an adverse balance which cannot be met by the reserve fund, the deficit is covered by a subsidy from the General Budget.

The receipts and expenditure of this railway for the years 1910-13, and the number of passengers and

weight of goods carried in 1912 and 1913, were as follows:—

—			Receipts.	Expenditure.	Goods.	Passengers.
			Francs.	Francs.	Tons.	
1910	2,883,877	1,880,81	—	—
1911	2,727,716	1,933,21	—	—
1912	2,524,920	1,870,753	36,624	145,756
1913	2,236,226	1,888,377	65,759	144,160

The fact that in 1913 the receipts fell though the traffic increased was due to a lowering of the tariffs.

The value of the Kayes—Niger railway to the colony is but imperfectly indicated by its financial returns. It is necessary to take into account the increased prosperity of the country since its construction, a prosperity clearly reflected in both the General and the Local Budgets. The material benefit which the colony has derived from the railway has long since repaid the expense of its construction.

The French have a far-reaching scheme for further railway construction in French West Africa, which will include the linking together of the railways already existing in the various colonies. A line is to be constructed from Bamako to Buguni, and the present French Guinea line prolonged to meet it. The Ivory Coast railway is to be extended through Kong and Diebugu to Boromo on the Black Volta; and the Dahomey railway is to be extended through Paraku, Jugu, Kwande, and Fada N'Gurma to Wagadugu. These lines are eventually to be connected by a line from Buguni to Diebugu and Wagadugu, to be continued to Ansongo on the Niger. Another line is to link the French Guinea line with the Thies—Kayes railway; and a branch will run from Paraku, on the extended Dahomey railway, to Gaya in the Military Territory of the Niger. Of these lines, however, only that from Bamako to Buguni is likely to be built in the near future.

The project of a trans-Saharan line, joining French West Africa to Algeria, has been the subject of much discussion, and various surveying expeditions have been sent out, but there does not appear at present to be any prospect of the accomplishment of this scheme.

(d) *Posts and Telegraphs*

The European mail for Upper Senegal and Niger is brought by sea to Dakar, and thence forwarded by rail, river, and carriers. Mails for the Military Territory of the Niger go *via* Dahomey or the Sudan. Recently a weekly mail to this region, *via* Liverpool, Lagos, and Kano, has been instituted. Postal matter from Paris to Zinder by this route is 26 days in transit.

In 1915 there were seventy-three post and telegraph offices in Upper Senegal and Niger, and twelve in the Military Territory of the Niger. There is to be a telegraph line from Algeria to Timbuktu, where a wireless station is to be established.

(B) INDUSTRY

(1) LABOUR

The Europeans in the regions under consideration have hitherto had no difficulty in securing sufficient labour for their needs, which, of course, have seldom been great. As regards the future, while it is true that the nomadic peoples of the north are not likely to be of much value as a source of labour, the semi-nomadic tribes and the sedentary negroid inhabitants of the south will probably be able to satisfy all demands on their services for a long time to come. The Peuls, who are semi-nomadic, should prove useful as herdsmen, for they show remarkable skill in the management of cattle. As for the negroid races, they are generally docile and, for Africans, industrious, while some of them, particularly the Sarakoles, produce efficient artisans and mechanics. They should prove of great assistance in the economic development of the colony and the Military Territory.

(2) AGRICULTURE

(a) *Products of Commercial Value*

(i) *Vegetable Products*.—In these regions there are several distinct zones of vegetation. The extreme north is mere desert, with the flora characteristic of such areas. The northern Sahel, with the sandstone steppe in the north of the Niger Bend, and the less sterile parts of the Aïr, Adghagh, and Tilei, are clothed with the steppe flora. Wide tracts of mimosa scrub are a striking feature of these regions, but forest trees are entirely absent. Useful fibre-yielding plants are common, and one or two cereals grow wild. South of 17° 15' north latitude the savannah type of vegetation appears, with somewhat richer pasture. The principal trees of this belt belong to the acacia family. Within this comparatively arid zone the great river beds form oases which possess a more luxuriant flora of the Sudan type. The true Sudan zone, lying approximately south of 14° north latitude, is marked by the presence of forest trees and an abundant and varied vegetation.

The majority of the population are engaged in agricultural or pastoral pursuits. No estimate of the area under cultivation has been made. In most parts of the country only the land round the villages is cultivated, and the produce is all consumed locally.

The chief agricultural products of commercial value are noticed below:—

Castor Bean.—Two varieties of the castor bean are found in the colony, but only one, the smaller, is of importance. The shrub grows well and produces twice a year. Besides being employed in pharmacy, the oil of this plant is used in the manufacture of perfumes and for lubricating purposes. It is probable that its cultivation could be profitably developed, as the oil is increasingly used in connection with aviation.

Cereals.—*Maize* is cultivated in many parts of Upper Senegal and Niger, especially in the south. The trade in this produce is very small, and there is no export.

Considerable quantities of *millet* are grown in Upper Senegal and Niger, and in the southern parts of the Military Territory. The price at which it is sold is very low, not exceeding five centimes the kilogram. In the economic life of the colony it holds much the same place as in French Senegal. (See *Senegal*, No. 102 of this series.)

Rice is extensively cultivated in Upper Senegal and Niger, frequently replacing millet as the staple food crop. It is grown principally in swampy ground and in tracts flooded by the rivers in the rainy season. Mountain rice, which used to be extensively cultivated, is now grown in only a few plantations in the south.

In most parts of the colony nearly all the rice produced is consumed by the growers and their neighbours, very little finding its way to the markets. There is, however, an important local trade in that grown in the middle valley of the Niger, particularly in the region of Jenne, Mopti, and Issa-Ber, and between Gao and Tillaberry (in the Military Territory). Rice from these parts is brought in large quantities to Timbuktu, Sarafere, Segou, Bamako, and Kayes; and several hundred tons are annually exported to Guinea by the Upper Niger. The price is very variable, but as a rule is about double that of millet.

The regions in which the production of rice for export might be developed are, first, the islands in the River Niger, which will have easy communication with Dahomey as soon as the projected railway extensions are carried out, and, secondly, that part of the Niger valley which lies between Segou and Timbuktu. The latter district is already a great centre of production, and might become in future the chief source of supply for Senegal and French Guinea, which at present have to import great quantities of rice from Indo-China. Of late years various European firms at Mopti have interested themselves in the rice trade, and a rice mill has been erected in the town.

Wheat is cultivated in Upper Senegal and Niger in the neighbourhood of Gundam, and in several parts of

the Military Territory of the Niger. The variety grown gives as high a proportion of flour as most European wheat. The total production is, however, small, and the trade is purely local. The cultivation of this crop could probably be considerably extended in all the valley of the Middle Niger, as it can be grown after the rice is harvested; but the local demand for wheat will never become great, as rice and millet are much cheaper; and export to Europe, and even to Senegal, is impossible owing to the cost of transport.

Cotton.—Cotton grows better in Upper Senegal and Niger than in French Senegal, and the annual production of native cotton may be estimated at about 1,000 tons. There is a fairly active internal trade and a growing export, but the greater part of the cotton is used by the producers. From the principal centres of production, Mossi, Segou, Kury, and Kutiala, it is sent in the form of woven bands and garments to important centres of the colony, such as Bamako, Timbuktu, Dori, and Sikasso.

In view of the fact that the cotton industry of France is entirely dependent on supplies from territories belonging to other States, attention has been drawn to the possibility of growing cotton on a large scale in French West Africa, and in 1903 the Association Cotonnière Coloniale was founded by the General Syndicate of the French cotton industry. At first the efforts of the Association were directed solely to the introduction of foreign varieties of cotton into West Africa, as the native crop was considered to be too short in fibre and too unequal in quality to be suitable for use in European factories. Experiments have shown that American cotton will grow well and produce a good yield in certain parts of Upper Senegal and Niger. Nevertheless, the plantations have not been successful, owing to mistakes in the choice of locality, lack of rain, the prevalence of parasites, the ignorance of the natives, and other causes, and, although the experiments have not been abandoned, greater hopes have of late been set on the improvement of the local

variety. The country is certainly capable of an increased production of native cotton, but little advance can be looked for until the natives are induced to adopt better methods of cultivation. At present there are in the colony three ginneries under the direction of the Association Cotonnière—at Segu, M'Pesoba (Kutiala district), and San. The amount of raw cotton bought by the Association increased from 25 tons in 1907-8 to 400 tons in 1913-14.

Fibres.—*Bombax buonopozense* is abundant, and the silky hair contained in the fruit-pods furnishes one of the fibres known as *kapok*, which is much used in the manufacture of life-saving apparatus and surgical dressings. The kapok of Upper Senegal and Niger appears to be as valuable as that of Java, the chief source of this commodity, and it is hoped that the colony may in future produce very large quantities. The exploitation of kapok in French West Africa is very récent; in 1913 the export from Upper Senegal and Niger amounted to 27 tons, as against 8 in 1912. Another important fibrous plant is *Hibiscus cannabinus* known locally as *da*. It is cultivated principally along the rivers and streams, and the fibre is used by the natives for the manufacture of fishing nets and strong cord. It is very like Indian jute, and could be used in Europe for the manufacture of coarse textiles, cords, sacks, cables, and nets. Hitherto the crop has been absorbed locally, selling in the markets along the Niger at 14 francs the 100 kg., but in 1913 the first export, of 5 metric tons, was made, and further trade might be developed.

The *tien* or *kien*, grown in the millet fields, produces a fibre which, though short, is stronger than that of *da*, and deteriorates less in contact with water; it is therefore preferred by the natives for the manufacture of nets. The local price is about 50 francs the 100 kg., but samples were valued at 720 francs the ton by experts at the Franco-British Exhibition. Other fibres are obtained from the bark of the baobab, the

Leptadenia spartum, and the togoyo (*Melochia corchorifolia*).

Various attempts have been made to introduce foreign fibrous plants, such as the sisal (*Agave rigida sisalana*) and the *Furcraea gigantea*. Both flourish, but the sisal is the more remunerative. Various plantations have been made, and appear to be thriving, but it is impossible as yet to judge of the ultimate result of the experiment. Machinery has been introduced by some of the colonists for the preparation of the crop, and in 1914 sisal to the value of 6,000 francs was exported from Upper Senegal and Niger.

Ground-nuts.—The ground-nut is found throughout Upper Senegal and Niger, but is most plentiful south of 15° north latitude. It is not, however, of nearly so much importance as in French Senegal, which, moreover, produces a better variety. In 1913 Upper Senegal and Niger exported 8,577 tons of ground-nuts, and in 1912 5,830 tons. As the ground-nut is a cumbersome product, it can be exported only during the flood season, when large boats are able to reach Kayes, and it has therefore to be stored from January to August or September. This inconvenience, with the attendant risk and expense, has seriously hindered the development of the trade. Transport, too, is costly, and the price commanded by nuts from Upper Senegal and Niger is lower by 7 or 8 centimes a kilogram than that commanded by nuts from Senegal. The trade will probably develop greatly after the completion of the Thies—Kayes and Bamako—Buguni railways.

In the Military Territory of the Niger ground-nuts are also grown, but there is no export.

Gum.—The Adrar, the Kaarta, and the steppes in the neighbourhood of Timbuktu are covered with the *acacia verec*, from which the greater part of the gum produced in the colony is derived. The commercial importance of gum, however, has decreased of late years. In 1913 the export amounted in value to 362,558 francs.

Rubber.—The whole of the southern part of Upper Senegal and Niger as far as 11° north latitude abounds in wild rubber vines, especially *Landolphia heudelotii*, which are found also, though less plentifully, up to 13° north latitude. Rubber was formerly one of the most important products of the Sudan zone, but in recent years there has been a rapid decrease in the value of the export, owing chiefly to the growing competition of plantation rubber. The enforcement of the decree which, with a view to the prevention of fraud, forbade the circulation of rubber, except in the form of flat plaques or thongs, has also contributed to the decline. In spite of all measures taken to improve the quality of West African rubber and the encouragement given to its cultivation by the Government, it is feared that it will not again realise the former high prices, and efforts are being made to turn the energies of the natives to other products. There was, however, a slight revival in the trade towards the end of 1914.

The exports of rubber from Upper Senegal and Niger in the last few years before the war were as follows:—

					Kg.
1909	241,289
1910	865,480
1911	258,624
1912	161,983
1913	83,353

Sesame.—The Government of Upper Senegal and Niger has endeavoured to develop the cultivation of sesame, which is grown in the villages. At the agricultural station at Kulikoro a yield of 2,000 to 2,500 kg. per hectare has been obtained, about twice the normal yield. Sesame is, in certain respects, superior to the ground-nut, for it produces more oil in proportion to its weight, and fetches a higher price per ton—very considerable advantages in a country where means of communication are poor. The native, however, prefers

the ground-nut, which requires less care, is a favourite food, and provides fodder for cattle. The export of sesame from Upper Senegal and Niger increased from 16 tons in 1912 to 50 tons in 1913.

Shea Butter.—The nut of the shea tree (*Butyrospermum parkii*) yields a vegetable butter which is extensively used by the natives for cooking, lighting, and soap-making. The tree grows wild in Upper Senegal and Niger, and is also cultivated. Shea butter is used for the manufacture of margarine and candles by English, Dutch, and German firms. The harvest is from June to September. The nuts, after being dried in the sun, are put in the ground, where the shells peel off; they can be preserved in this way for several months. The butter, which is prepared by a somewhat complicated process, is made in small quantities as it is needed. In 1911 shea nuts and butter were for the first time exported from the colony; the amount despatched in that year was 293 tons, and in 1912 the export rose to 847 tons. The trade has hitherto been seriously impeded by the difficulties of navigation on the River Senegal, but will be considerably facilitated by the completion of the Thies—Kayes railway.

The manufacture of shea butter has been undertaken by several European firms in the colony. The firm of Devès & Chaumet has recently established a factory at Beneni, near San, from which butter is exported in metal casks. There seems every reason to believe that this enterprise will be successful.

It may be added that the wood of the shea tree is of great constructional value and excellent for cabinet-making, but in Upper Senegal and Niger it is illegal to cut it, except on private property.

Vegetable Ivory.—Vegetable ivory is obtained from the fruit of the rônier and doum palms, the former being much the more important source. The kernel of the rônier nut is very hard, and is similar to that of the Guayaquil nut, which is used in Europe for the manufacture of buttons and other objects in imitation

y. In 1910 a Mme. Perchso was granted authority to exploit the *rônier* palm in the forest of Sero in Upper Senegal and Niger.

Other Products.—Among crops grown by the natives for their own use are tobacco, indigo, cassava, yams, sweet potatoes, beans, and fonio (*Paspalum longiflorum*); the last named is cultivated particularly in the south of Upper Senegal and Niger, where it to some extent replaces millet. Many European vegetables, such as potatoes, haricots, peas, and asparagus, have been successfully introduced.

(ii) *Live-stock.*—The rearing of live-stock is one of the most important occupations in Upper Senegal and Niger and the Military Territory. It is carried on chiefly by tribes who are still in the pastoral stage of development, only one-eighth of the total head of stock being owned by the agricultural and artisan elements of the population. During the dry season the animals are driven in large herds to the neighbourhood of rivers or lakes, or to low-lying valleys where the herbage remains fresh. In the wet season, when pasture is everywhere abundant, they are taken back to the plateaux. Some tribes are nomadic and always accompany their herds. Others, who live in villages, send off their cattle for the dry season in the charge of herdsmen. The route taken by the cattle of a particular tribe is generally the same every year, and usually traverses tracts of country unappropriated by the native communities. The variety of the pastures renders the beasts healthy and vigorous, but there is no breeding on principles of methodical selection.

Of late, non-pastoral tribes have also been steadily increasing their herds. Their cattle are often entrusted to the care of Peul or Tukuler herdsmen, and, except in a few districts where milk is valuable and the cows are given a ration of millet flour or ground-nut straw, they do not provide artificial food for their beasts. Little meat is consumed, except in the towns, and the animals are never fattened.

In 1914 there were in Upper Senegal and Niger alone 2,000,000 cattle and upwards of 3,000,000 sheep and goats. There are several breeds of cattle in the colony. A humped or zebu breed prevails north of a line passing through Bakel, Kayes, Nyamina, and Kury, but does not flourish in the moist Sudan zone, as the animals are very susceptible to the attacks of the tsetse fly. In the south the Futa Jalon and also the dwarf Mossi oxen are kept. The natives of the south frequently cross their cattle with those of the zebu breed with a view to raising bigger animals with a larger yield of milk. Towards the southern limits of the colony, however, little zebu blood can be introduced, for fear of undermining the power of resisting the tsetse fly which is possessed by the southern breed.

There are eight breeds of sheep in the Sahel and steppe regions; of these only one, the Macina, is wool-bearing. Further south a small moufflon sheep, probably indigenous to the Futa Jalon, is kept. The Government of Upper Senegal and Niger has endeavoured to improve the breed of the Macina sheep by the introduction of Algerian merinos, and in 1908 a sheep-breeding station was established at Niafunke. The experiments in crossing have been quite successful, and several half and three-quarter bred rams have been distributed to the natives. The wool is for the most part used in the country for making clothes; but about 300 tons were exported in 1914.

Owing to the influence of Islam among the natives there are few pigs in either the colony or the Military Territory.

Upper Senegal and Niger is the chief centre of horse-breeding in French West Africa. About the year 1911 the total number of horses in Upper Senegal and Niger and the Military Territory of the Niger was 103,722, out of a total for French West Africa of 125,000. They are not found in the south of the colony. A stud was formed by the Government of Upper Senegal and Niger in 1905, and has rendered very valuable service

in the improvement of the breed. More than 2,000 horses are exported yearly.

Donkeys are numerous; they are small but very vigorous. In the Military Territory the Tuareg tribes breed large numbers of camels.

No exact figures regarding the export of animals can be given, as most of those from the Sudan zone go to the colonies to the south, crossing the frontier by many paths. The annual export from Upper Senegal and Niger is estimated at about 40,000 cattle and 60,000 sheep and goats. The losses *en route* are considerable, sometimes as much as 20 per cent. The export is almost entirely in the hands of the natives, and it does not appear that European companies could take it up with profit. The greater part of the export trade is carried on with the coast colonies, but cattle are also supplied to the Cape Verde and Canary Islands for the provisioning of the ships which call there. It is improbable that there will ever be a large export of cattle to Europe, owing to difficulties of transport. The possibility of facilitating the movement of cattle from the colony to the coast was considered in 1912, and it was recommended that wells should be dug in the Ferlo region of Senegal to make it traversable during the dry season. This would enable the animals coming from the Sudan zone to reach the ports by different routes, and would reduce the ravages of epidemics, which break out on the present crowded tracks. In 1912 an attempt was made to export live cattle to France, but it was abandoned in 1913, and the export of frozen and preserved meat substituted. In both the colony and the Military Territory there is a considerable surplus of hides, which is exported. Efforts are being made to improve the quality of this product.

Fowls, ducks, and other poultry are kept in considerable numbers.

Ostriches are found wild throughout the Sahel and Timbuktu regions. They are hunted for their feathers, and also used to be bred in captivity

by the natives for food, though this practice appears to be decreasing. Most of the plumes used for decorative purposes come from the wild birds. The French have at different times established model ostrich farms in Upper Senegal and Niger, but so far without success. The aigrettes and marabout storks of the Niger, nearly exterminated by feather hunters, are now strictly protected.

(b) *Methods of Cultivation*

As regards the agricultural methods of the natives, what is said in *Senegal*, No. 102 of this series, applies equally well to the territories covered by this volume. It may be added that in Upper Senegal and Niger the Government is contemplating the construction of important irrigation works in the Niger valley and in the country north of Timbuktu.

(c) *Forestry*

In the Sudan zone the woods resemble European coppices where here and there forest trees have been left standing. In the wet low-lying lands the trees grow close together and are straight; on the sides of the hills and the plateaux the vegetation is stunted and scarce, and large stretches of land are comparatively bare. Dense woods are rare, existing in the south only on rich land which has not yet been cultivated. Most of the forest regions are of the savannah type, the trees growing in clumps separated by pasture.

Many kinds of wood serviceable in building and cabinet-making are found. There is, however, no established timber trade. The Public Works Department cuts what it requires for immediate use, but most of the building wood used by Europeans is imported from Europe.

The constant and rapid diminution of the forests in certain parts of French West Africa is receiving the

anxious attention of the Government. Steps are now being taken to protect certain areas where devastation has been particularly serious. Legislative measures have placed restrictions on the cutting of wood, and forest reserves have been created.

(d) *Land Tenure*

The conditions of land tenure are described in *Senegal*, No. 102 of this series.

(3) FISHERIES

The rivers in Upper Senegal and Niger are full of fish. The Somonos and the Bozos, who live on the banks of the Niger, and the Banis, are the chief tribes who fish in the rivers; the others merely fish during the season of low water in the little streams and the marshes. There is a considerable local trade in fish, which is sometimes sent to distant markets, and a small quantity is exported to Upper Guinea.

(4) MINERALS

The mineral resources of the territories under consideration do not appear to be of great importance, but so far they have not been fully investigated.

Gold constitutes the chief mineral wealth. The extent of the auriferous earths has not yet been fully ascertained, but the chief deposits appear to be in the basin of the Faleme and other parts of the Bambuk region; in the Mandingo district, south-west of Bamako; and in the Lobi country, on the frontiers of the Ivory Coast and the Gold Coast. All these have long been worked by natives, but only the Faleme basin, in which several companies have concessions, has as yet been exploited by Europeans. The Mandingo fields have rich veins in the watershed of the Bakhoy and the Niger. The Lobi deposits are probably the richest and

certainly the purest and most easily worked, but the difficulties of transport have so far prevented their exploitation. Gold is also reported to occur in the Yatenga region and on the Niger near Niame. In all these localities the gold is found both in veins in the hills and in alluvial deposits in the streams. It is usually pure, sometimes slightly alloyed with silver, and occurs in flakes, in fine dust, and occasionally in nuggets.

It is estimated that the native workings in Upper Senegal and Niger produce about 300 kg. of gold annually. With few exceptions the natives do not work the veins in the hills, owing partly to a lack of proper tools and partly to a superstition that the gold belongs to malignant devils. The alluvial deposits are worked during the dry season, from January to May, wells being specially dug from which the auriferous earths are extracted and subsequently washed in calabashes. Gold is also extracted by divers from the beds of the streams during the low-water season.

Various attempts have been made by Europeans to exploit the goldfields, but the only company at present working is the Compagnie des Mines de SÉNÉGAMBIE, which obtains gold by dredging in the Faleme and its tributaries. The lack of means of communication and transport constitutes a great obstacle to mining enterprise. Furthermore, the two most economical methods of working the alluvium, the Californian hydraulic method and dredging, cannot be employed to advantage. The former method, owing to lack of water power in the dry season; could be used for four months in the year only, except in the case of deposits near a large river. For dredging the river beds are often unsuitable.

Iron is abundant on the laterite; it occurs also in the mountains, in the form of hydroxide or magnetic oxide, and in the Yatenga as hæmatite. It is still mined in a primitive way by the natives on the banks of the Bakhoy, in the Fula Duga, the Mandingo, and

other districts, but the industry is declining owing to the importation of iron goods from Europe.

Mercury, *arsenic*, and *manganese* are found in the Bambuk region; the last also occurs on the Niger between Niame and Danza. *Sulphide of antimony* has been noticed at Bakel. *Copper* has been traced near Bafulabe, but has not been exploited.

The chief *salt* deposits are at Taodenit, 260 miles north of Timbuktu. Their resources are said to be practically unlimited, but their exploitation is hampered by the insecurity of the region. There are other salt beds at Djerna Ganda and in the Dosso country. In 1914 about 1,360 tons of salt were brought to Timbuktu by the caravans. The competition of European salt has caused a considerable decrease in this trade.

(5) MANUFACTURES

Of the native industries, which are very primitive, the most important are weaving, dyeing, tanning, smelting, and the manufacture of shoes, pottery, and jewellery. In Upper Senegal and Niger patterned woollen goods known as *casas* are produced, and are the objects of a considerable local trade. Handsome rugs of a mixture of wool and cotton are made in small quantities at Macina, Farimake, and Tioki, and are in great request among the natives.

A company has been formed with a view to installing in the neighbourhood of Bamako a factory for meat extracts, preserves, and animal by-products. This company has obtained a grant of land, and proposes to use the Sotuba falls to obtain electric power. It is estimated that the factory, when in full activity, will be able to deal with 30,000 to 40,000 head annually.

The only other European industrial undertakings in Upper Senegal and Niger are the ice factories at Kayes and Bamako, a kapok ginnery at Kayes, and cotton ginneries at Segu, San, and M'Pesoba.

(C) COMMERCE

(1) DOMESTIC

(a) Principal Branches of Trade

The principal lines of internal trade in the colony of Upper Senegal and Niger appear to run longitudinally. The northern region sends to the south cattle and salt; the southern region sends to the north kola nuts, imported textile goods, and ornaments; while from the country between these two zones grain, shea butter, and textiles are sent to the northern districts, and cattle, dried fish, and textiles to those in the south. The principal centres of internal trade are Bamako, Kayes, Timbuktu, Mopti, San, Sikasso, and Bobo-Dioulasso.

In the Military Territory the greater part of the internal trade is concerned with millet, salt, oil, and articles of clothing of native manufacture. It is estimated that in 1912 the value of this internal trade was 1,200,000 francs (£48,000).

(b) Towns, Markets, Fairs

The administrative capital of Upper Senegal and Niger is Bamako-Kulaba. The seat of the Government and the houses of the officials are at Kulaba, on a plateau above the Niger; the commercial town is Bamako, situated below Kulaba on the banks of the river. There are railway workshops, fine schools, and, near by, a racecourse.

Kayes is the chief port of access to Upper Senegal and Niger. It is situated on the River Senegal, is a terminus of the Kayes—Niger railway, and, it is expected, will shortly be in direct communication by rail with Thies in French Senegal.

Timbuktu has lost much of its commercial importance since the cessation of the trans-Saharan traffic, and regains a semblance of its former activity only when the annual caravans set out to fetch salt from

Aruan or Taodenit. It has, however, a large native market.

Other noteworthy centres are Wagadugu, Jenne, Segu, Sikasso, Mopti, Bobo-Diulasso, Bandiagara, and Nioro. In all the important settlements a large market is held once or twice a week to serve the neighbouring districts, while there is a small one daily for the inhabitants of the town itself.

In the Military Territory of the Niger the chief centres of trade are Zinder, Niame, and Gaya.

(c) Organizations to promote Trade and Commerce

There are two Chambers of Commerce in Upper Senegal and Niger, one at Kayes and the other at Bamako.

(d) Foreign Interests

What is said under this head in *Senegal* (No. 102 of this series) is equally true of Upper Senegal and Niger and the Military Territory.

(2) FOREIGN

(a) Exports and Imports

Upper Senegal and Niger.—It is impossible to obtain accurate figures to show the development of the foreign commerce of Upper Senegal and Niger. The trade passes by four routes; by the River Senegal through Kayes, through French Guinea, through other southern colonies, and across the frontiers of the Sahara. The official figures refer, as a rule, only to the merchandise carried by the first of these four routes, and therefore give a very imperfect impression of the real extent of the colony's foreign trade. Further, the proportion of the total trade passing by the Senegal route has not been constant; since the opening of the railway from Konakri to Kurusa, there has been a great increase in the amount of the

imports through French Guinea. Lastly, many of the goods imported into Upper Senegal and Niger through other French colonies are included in the official returns for those colonies, and although goods registered at St. Louis in Senegal as in transit for Kayes are now counted among the imports of Upper Senegal and Niger, this method of computation has been in use only since 1911, and seems not to have been adopted at any other port of French West Africa. This change in the system of compiling the statistics of the import trade through Senegal must be borne in mind, as it is almost entirely responsible for the remarkable difference between the figures of 1910 and 1911 (see Appendix, Table I). On the other hand, the subsequent fall in the figures for the foreign trade of Upper Senegal and Niger reflected a real decline, though this was due to accidental and temporary causes. Trade was particularly bad in 1914, owing partly to the Great War, but still more to a destructive drought.

The chief articles imported into Upper Senegal and Niger are textiles, wines and spirits, sugar, salt, paper goods, metal goods, and preserved meat; the principal articles of export are cattle, ground-nuts, millet, hides and skins, rubber, gum, gold, wool, and shea nuts.

By the Senegal route manufactured goods, timber, preserved foodstuffs, sugar, and salt are imported; ground-nuts, hides, rubber, gum, and shea nuts are exported.

Through French Guinea textiles and foodstuffs are imported into the central districts of the colony; and hides, gold, rubber, wool, and cotton are the chief commodities exported by this route.

Through the other southern colonies kola nuts and various articles of European origin are obtained, the exports by this route consisting mainly of live stock.

Across the frontiers of the Sahara salt is imported, and cereals and textiles are exported.

The foreign commerce of the colony is almost entirely in the hands of French houses. The total amount of

European capital engaged in the country is between 25,000,000 and 30,000,000 francs.

Military Territory of the Niger.—The frontier trade of the Territory is mainly carried on with Nigeria. The north of Nigeria is thickly populated, and constitutes an important and increasing market for the millet and cattle produced in abundance in the southern part of the Military Territory. Most of the imports of the Territory come through Nigeria, for the railway from Lagos brings to Kano manufactured articles, tinned provisions, and sugar, which can be sold at Zinder more cheaply than similar goods which arrive *via* Dahomey, the Sudan, or the Algerian oases. In 1913 there was no customs service in the Territory, and it was therefore impossible to obtain accurate statistics of its commerce. An official estimate put the total value of its external trade in 1913 at 2,053,677 francs (£82,147), of which imports accounted for 861,897 francs (£34,476), and exports for 1,191,780 francs (£47,671). Goods from Nigeria, principally British textiles, represent about two-thirds of the total value of the imports. In attempting to estimate the volume of the external trade of the Territory it must be remembered that it serves as a corridor for a lively traffic between Nigeria and various French colonies.

Commercial relations with Tripoli, completely suspended at the time of the Italian expedition, have not been resumed, and it is probable that in future they will be limited to a local commerce between the tribes in the north of the Territory and those in the south of Tripoli.

In 1914 the export trade of the Military Territory suffered greatly from a drought. The official figures for the year give the value of the imports as 1,000,604 francs (£40,024), and that of the exports as 609,618 francs (£24,384). Such was the effect of the drought on the harvest that whereas there is normally an export to Nigeria of rice and millet, in this year a considerable import of grain was necessary.

(b) *Customs and Tariffs*

As from January 1, 1914, the tariffs of Upper Senegal and Niger and the Military Territory have been assimilated to those of Senegal. (See *Senegal*, No. 102 of this series.) There had previously been in operation, in both the colony and the Territory, a tax known as *ussuru*, i.e., an import duty of 10 per cent. on the value of all goods imported directly from territories belonging to foreign States. The incidence of this tax, however, was much limited by a Franco-British agreement of 1898, and after that date the only imports into Upper Senegal and Niger actually paying the tax were those coming by caravan from the Sahel and the Sahara. At the time of the abolition of the *ussuru* a tax of 10 per cent. was imposed on salt extracted at Taodenit.

(D) FINANCE

(1) *Public Finance*

The finances of the colony and of the Military Territory are administered partly by the general government of French West Africa under the General Budget created in 1904, and partly by the authorities immediately responsible for the regions in question. The chief expenses with which the General Budget is concerned are the charges on the debt and public works, while its chief source of revenue lies in customs duties. Of the revenues allotted to the Local Budget the greater part is derived from the poll-tax, which varies, according to the district, from 25 centimes to 5 francs, troops and children under 8 being exempt.

In 1913 the revenue of the Government of Upper Senegal and Niger was 9,679,584 francs (£383,183), and the expenditure 8,791,147 francs (£351,646); the revenue of the Government of the Military Territory was 1,590,155 francs (£63,606), and the expenditure

1,281,270 francs (£51,250). The following tables show the main items:—

Revenue

	Upper Senegal and Niger.	Military Territory of the Niger.
Direct taxation—	Francs.	Francs.
Poll-tax	6,995,639	1,032,496
Patents and licences	85,142	9,645
Dues paid by pedlars	114,990	36,789
Indirect taxation—		
Usuru and pasturage charges.. ..	209,592	219,466
Posts and telegraphs	240,902	20,408
Domain lands	72,878	—
Market dues	640,622	62,463
River navigation	375,513	—
Subsidy from General Budget	—	135,000
Excess over the maximum of the Reserve Fund	487,917	—
Other receipts	456,889	73,888
Total	9,679,584	1,590,155

Expenditure

	Upper Senegal and Niger.	Military Territory of the Niger.
	Francs.	Francs.
Central administration	338,022	140,818
Local administration of circles	1,759,987	309,481
Treasury and collection of taxes.. ..	436,850	51,129
Justice	27,449	4,876
Education	340,671	11,530
Police and prisons	1,294,450	259,710
Sanitary service and poor relief	430,387	39,536
Posts and telegraphs	947,520	144,059
Public works	990,661	59,527
River navigation	469,277	1,427
Travelling and transport expenses	908,709	197,445
Other expenses	847,164	61,732
Total	8,791,147	1,281,270

A Reserve Fund has been formed for the Local Budget of Upper Senegal and Niger, with a fixed minimum of 1,000,000 francs. On May 31, 1914, the cash in hand was 2,009,887 francs. The Military Territory has no special Reserve Fund of its own, but in 1913 it contributed 308,885 francs to the Reserve Fund of the General Budget.

(2) *Currency*

French gold and silver are used, especially the five-franc piece, and, owing to the proximity of the British colonies, British gold is very common. The scarcity of bronze coinage in the Military Territory causes great inconvenience and raises the cost of living; it results also in a tendency for the natives to return to the primitive methods of barter. By reason of its convenience bronze coinage is highly appreciated by the natives, who often give it a value superior to its face value; thus a native has been known to exchange a 50-centime piece for 35 centimes in copper. This depreciation of silver occurs especially in the case of coins of the lower denominations.

APPENDIX

EXTRACTS FROM TREATIES, &C.

I

DECLARATION BETWEEN THE BRITISH AND FRENCH GOVERNMENTS, AUGUST 5, 1890.¹

Art. II.—The Government of Her Britannic Majesty recognizes the sphere of influence of France to the south of her Mediterranean Possessions, up to a line from Saye on the Niger, to Barruwa on Lake Chad, drawn in such manner as to comprise in the sphere of action of the Niger Company all that fairly belongs to the Kingdom of Sokoto; the line to be determined by the Commissioners to be appointed.

The Government of Her Britannic Majesty engages to appoint immediately two Commissioners to meet at Paris with two Commissioners appointed by the Government of the French Republic, in order to settle the details of the above-mentioned line. But it is expressly understood that even in case the labours of these Commissioners should not result in a complete agreement upon all details of the line, the Agreement between the two Governments as to the general delimitation above set forth shall, nevertheless, remain binding.

The Commissioners will also be intrusted with the task of determining the respective spheres of influences of the two countries in the region which extends to the west and to the south of the Middle and Upper Niger.

II

CONVENTION BETWEEN GREAT BRITAIN AND FRANCE, JUNE 14, 1898.²

Art. III.—From the point specified in Art. II, where the frontier separating the British and French possessions strikes the Niger, viz., a point situated on the right bank of that river, 10

¹ Hertslet, *The Map of Africa by Treaty*, London, 1909, II, p. 788.

² *Ibid.*, II, p. 785.

miles (16,098 metres) up-stream from the centre of the town of Gere (Guiris), (the port of Ilo), the frontier shall follow a straight line drawn therefrom at right angles to the right bank as far as its intersection with the median line of the river. It shall then follow the median line of the river, up-stream, as far as its intersection with a line drawn perpendicularly to the left bank from the median line of the mouth of the depression or dry water-course, which, on Map No. 2, annexed to the present Protocol, is called the Dallul Mauri, and is shown thereon as being situated at a distance of about 17 miles (27,359 metres), measured as the crow flies, from a point on the left bank opposite the above-mentioned village of Gere (Guiris).

From this point of intersection the frontier shall follow this perpendicular till it meets the left bank of the river.

*Art. IV.*¹—To the east of the Niger the frontier separating the British and French possessions shall follow the line indicated on Map No. 2, which is annexed to the present Protocol.

Starting from the point on the left bank of the Niger indicated in the previous Article, viz., the median line of the Dallul Mauri, the frontier shall follow this median line until it meets the circumference of a circle drawn from the centre of the town of Sokoto with a radius of 100 miles (160,932 metres). From this point it shall follow the northern arc of this circle as far as its second intersection with the 14th parallel of north latitude. From this second point of intersection it shall follow this parallel eastward for a distance of 70 miles (112,652 metres); then proceed due south until it reaches the parallel of 13° 20' north latitude, then eastward along this parallel for a distance of 250 miles (402,230 metres); then due north until it regains the 14th parallel of north latitude; then eastwards along this parallel as far as its intersection with the meridian passing 35' east of the centre of the town of Kuka, and thence this meridian southward until its intersection with the southern shore of Lake Chad.

The Government of the French Republic recognizes, as falling within the British sphere, the territory to the east of the Niger, comprised within the above-mentioned line, the Anglo-German frontier, and the sea.

The Government of Her Britannic Majesty recognizes, as falling within the French sphere, the northern, eastern, and southern shores of Lake Chad, which are comprised between the point of intersection of the 14th degree of north latitude, with the western shore of the lake and the point of incidence on the shore of the

¹ A modified line of boundary, in substitution of that fixed by this Article, was laid down in Art. VIII of the Convention of April 8, 1904, and finally agreed to in the Convention of May 29, 1906.

lake of the frontier determined by the Franco-German Convention of the 15th March, 1894.

[This Article was completed by Declaration signed at London on 21st March, 1899.]

III

CONVENTION BETWEEN GREAT BRITAIN AND FRANCE, APRIL 8, 1904.¹

Art. VIII.—To the east of the Niger the following line shall be substituted for the boundary fixed between the French and British possessions by the Convention of the 14th June, 1898 (No. 241), subject to the modifications which may result from the stipulations introduced in the sixth and seventh paragraphs of the present Article.

Starting from the point on the left bank of the Niger laid down in Art. III of the Convention of the 14th June, 1898, that is to say, the median line of the Dallul Mauri, the frontier shall be drawn along this median line until it meets the circumference of a circle drawn from the town of Sokoto as a centre, with a radius of 160,932 mètres (100 miles). Thence it shall follow the northern arc of this circle to a point situated 5 kilomètres south of the point of intersection of the above-mentioned arc of the circle with the route from Dosso to Matankari via Maourédé.

Thence it shall be drawn in a direct line to a point 20 kilomètres north of Konni (Birni-N'Kouni), and then in a direct line to a point 15 kilomètres south of Maradi, and thence shall be continued in a direct line to the point of intersection of the parallel of 13° 20' north latitude with a meridian passing 70 miles to the east of the second intersection of the 14th degree of north latitude and the northern arc of the above-mentioned circle.

Thence the frontier shall follow in an easterly direction the parallel of 13° 20' north latitude until it strikes the left bank of the River Komadugu Waubé (Komadougou Ouobé), the thalweg of which it will then follow to Lake Chad. But, if before meeting this river the frontier attains a distance of 5 kilomètres from the caravan route from Zinder to Yo, through Sua Kololua (Soua Kololoua), Adeber, and Kabi, the boundary shall then be traced at a distance of 5 kilomètres to the south of this route until it strikes the left bank of the River Komadugu Waubé (Komadougou Ouobé), it being nevertheless understood that, if the boundary thus drawn should happen to pass through a village, this village, with its lands, shall be assigned to the Government to which would fall the larger portion of the village and its lands. The boundary will then, as before, follow the thalweg of the said river to Lake Chad.

¹ Hertslet, *The Map of Africa by Treaty*, II, p. 816.

Thence it will follow the degree of latitude passing through the thalweg of the mouth of the said river up to its intersection with the meridian running 35' east of the centre of the town of Kouka, and will then follow this meridian southwards until it intersects the southern shore of Lake Chad.

It is agreed, however, that, when the Commissioners of the two Governments at present engaged in delimiting the line laid down in Art. IV of the Convention of the 14th June, 1898, return home and can be consulted, the two Governments will be prepared to consider any modifications of the above frontier line which may seem desirable for the purpose of determining the line of demarcation with greater accuracy. In order to avoid the inconvenience to either party which might result from the adoption of a line deviating from recognized and well-established frontiers, it is agreed that in those portions of the projected line where the frontier is not determined by the trade routes, regard shall be had to the present political divisions of the territories so that the tribes belonging to the territories of Tessaoua-Maradi and Zinder shall, as far as possible, be left to France, and those belonging to the territories of the British zone shall, as far as possible, be left to Great Britain.

It is further agreed that, on Lake Chad, the frontier line shall, if necessary, be modified so as to assure to France a communication through open water at all seasons between her possessions on the north-west and those on the south-east of the Lake, and a portion of the surface of the open waters of the Lake at least proportionate to that assigned to her by the map forming Annex 2 of the Convention of the 14th June, 1898.

In that portion of the River Komadugu which is common to both parties, the populations on the banks shall have equal rights of fishing.

IV

CONVENTION BETWEEN FRANCE AND GERMANY, JULY 23, 1897.¹

Art. I.—La frontière partira de l'intersection de la côte avec le méridien de l'Ile Bayol, se confondra avec ce méridien jusqu'à la rive sud de la lagune qu'elle suivra jusqu'à une distance de 100 mètres environ au delà de la pointe est de l'Ile Bayol, remontera ensuite directement au nord jusqu'à mi-distance de la rive sud et de la rive nord de la lagune; puis suivra les sinuosités de la lagune à égale distance des deux rives jusqu'au thalweg du Mono, qu'elle suivra jusqu'au 7° degré de latitude nord.

¹ Hertslet, *op. cit.*, II, p. 661.

De l'intersection du thalweg du Mono avec le 7° degré de latitude nord, la frontière rejoindra par ce parallèle le méridien de l'Ile Bayol, qui servira de limite jusqu'à son intersection avec le parallèle passant à égale distance de Bassila et de Penesoulou. De ce point, elle gagnera la Rivière Kara suivant une ligne équidistante des chemins de Bassila à Bafilo par Kirikri et de Penesoulou à Séméré par Aledjo, et ensuite des chemins de Sudu à Séméré et d'Aledjo à Séméré, de manière à passer à égale distance de Daboni et d'Aledjo ainsi que de Sudu et d'Aledjo. Elle descendra ensuite le thalweg de la Rivière Kara sur une longueur de 5 kilom. et de ce point remontera en ligne droite vers le nord jusqu'au 10° degré de latitude nord, Séméré devant dans tous les cas rester à la France.

De là, la frontière se dirigera directement sur un point situé à égale distance entre Djé et Gandou, laissant Djé à la France et Gandou à l'Allemagne et gagnera le 11° degré de latitude nord en suivant une ligne parallèle à la route de Sansanné-Mango à Pama et distante de celle-ci de 30 kilom. Elle se prolongera ensuite vers l'ouest sur le 11° degré de latitude nord jusqu'à la Volta blanche de manière à laisser en tout cas Pougno à la France et Koun-Djari à l'Allemagne, puis elle rejoindra par le thalweg de cette rivière le 10° degré de latitude nord qu'elle suivra jusqu'à son intersection avec le méridien 3° 52' ouest de Paris (1° 32' ouest de Greenwich).

STATISTICS

TABLE I

(a) *Exports and Imports of Upper Senegal and Niger by the Senegal Route, 1908-1914*¹

—					Exports.	Imports.
					Francs.	Francs.
1908	438,625	2,306,765
1909	3,159,996	2,342,192
1910	5,276,497	7,038,101
1911	3,930,497	17,496,305
1912	3,422,410	9,803,799
1913	3,681,987	10,783,390
1914	2,394,632	5,592,880

¹ *Statistiques du Commerce des Colonies françaises.* Tome i, 1914.

(b) *Total Exports and Imports of Upper Senegal and Niger, 1912 and 1913¹*

	1912.		1913.	
	Exports.	Imports.	Exports.	Imports.
	Francs.	Francs.	Francs.	Francs.
Senegal route	3,422,410	9,803,799	3,828,695 ²	10,783,390
Guinea route (approximate) ..	500,000	1,500,000	1,277,000	3,500,000
Sahara frontier (approximate) ..	486,283	817,625	187,000	1,178,000
Frontiers of southern colonies (approximate)	7,737,446	3,502,842	7,594,342 ³	4,068,993
Total	12,146,139	15,624,266	12,887,037	19,530,383

TABLE II

(a) *Quantities, Values, and Destinations of Exports from Upper Senegal and Niger in 1913 by the Senegal Route*

	To France and French Colonies.		To United Kingdom.		Total.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
	Met. tons.	Francs.	Met. tons.	Francs.	Met. tons.	Francs.
Da.	5	2,165	5	2,165
Gold	25	75,195	25	75,195
Ground-nuts ..	8,577	2,058,512	8,577	2,058,512
Gum	632	362,558	632	362,558
Hides	201	296,972	79	117,771	280	414,743
Ivory	10,880	..	10,880
Kapok	28	13,922	28	13,922
Rubber	83	499,802	..	318	83	500,120
Sesame	50	11,034	50	11,034
Shea butter ..	28	13,783	28	13,783
Shea nuts ..	475	142,389	475	142,389
Specimens for collection	..	2,250	2,250
Wax	3.6	2,809	0.4	320	4	3,129
Wool	201	70,292	201	70,292
Other goods	1,015	1,015
Total	3,552,698	..	129,289	..	3,681,987

¹ *Rapport d'ensemble annuel, 1913.*

² The difference between this figure and that given for the exports by the Senegal route in the previous table is due to a difference in the estimate made of the value of the wool export. (See *Rapport d'ensemble annuel, 1913, p. 549.*)

³ This figure includes 500,000 francs representing the estimated value of the uncontrolled export of gold to Europe and the coast colonies.

(b) Quantities and Values of Exports from Upper Senegal and Niger in 1913 by the French Guinea Route (approximate figures only)

—	Quantity.	Value.
	Met. tons.	Francs.
Cotton	75	90,000
Gold (Senegambia mines) ..	0.1	300,000
Ground-nuts	100	20,000
Hides	380	570,000
Rubber	30	150,000
Shea nuts	156	39,000
Wool	108	108,000
Total	1,277,000

(c) Quantities and Values of Exports from Upper Senegal and Niger in 1913 by the Colonies of the South Guinea Coast (approximate figures only)

—	Number.	Value.
		Francs.
Cattle	76,875	5,381,250
Sheep	71,958	430,848
Horses	1,542	308,400
Donkeys	2,545	101,800
Camels	548	54,800
Other exports	1,317,244
Total	7,594,342

The only noteworthy commodity exported in 1913 across the Sahara frontier was millet, the quantity being estimated at 1,250 tons, the value at 187,000 frs.

TABLE III

Value and Origin of Imports into Upper Senegal and Niger in 1913 by the Senegal Route only

	Countries of Origin.					
	France and Colonies.	United Kingdom.	Germany.	Holland.	Belgium.	Other Countries.
						Total.
Cotton goods (other than guinea cloth)	Franks. 358,618	Franks. 1,135,788	Franks. 3,417	Franks. 128,612	Franks. 17,444	Franks. 159,040
Cotton thread	76,650	18,745	698	93
Empty sacks	204,303	17,331	39,596
Guinea cloth	1,213,200	148,800	204,600	31,200
Machinery	154,005	2,854	2,157
Paper goods	183,554	70	439	1,076
Preserved meat	156,109	250	..	290
Spirits	320,474	1,855	2,175
Sugar	496,989	135
Wines	380,878	562	4,680
Other merchandise	4,605,299	137,890	63,994	76,084	26,140	407,351
Total	8,150,079	1,315,480	67,411	353,786	249,316	647,318
						10,783,390

TABLE IV

Quantities, Values, and Immediate Destinations of Exports from the Military Territory of the Niger, 1913

	French Colonies.		British Colonies.		Total.
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	
Cotton	Franks.	Metric tons.	Franks.	Franks.
Dates45	900	900
Live animals—	1,300	1,300
Cattle ..	Number.	16,375	Number.	442,780	459,105
Sheep ..	503	1,025	12,000	122,430	123,455
Horses ..	245	..	26,000	79,130	79,130
Donkeys	560	24,640	25,750
Camels ..	37	1,110	720	..	1,000
	8	1,000
	Metric tons.	..	Metric tons.
Hides	161	161,000	161,000
Natron (refined)..	27.8	5,560	5,560
Ostrich feathers..085	8,500	8,500
Millet and rice ..	240	25,745	1,458	103,250	128,995
Salt and raw natron	..	3,800	..	16,500	20,300
Skins (prepared)	86	172,125	172,125
Other articles	2,660	..	2,000	4,660
Total	..	51,715	..	1,140,065	1,191,780

TABLE V

Imports into the Military Territory of the Niger, 1913

	Value in francs.
Cattle, horses, sheep, &c.	34,740
Chemical products	11,357
Cotton goods	544,275
Kola nuts	131,119
Lead, copper, &c.	8,317
Matches	4,547
Millet	25,050
Ostrich feathers	1,030
Paper	3,770
Perfumery	2,725
Preserved meat and fish	11,150
Salt	14,530
Skins (prepared)	9,937
Sugar	15,320
Tea	2,625
Tobacco	4,475
Toys, beads, &c.	10,200
Other articles	26,730
Total	861,897

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(See *French West Africa*, No. 100 of this series, pp. 20, 21.)

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MAPS

Upper Senegal and Niger is shown on the general War Office map, "West Africa" (G.S.G.S. 2434), scale 1: 6,336,000, 1903 (additions 1914, boundaries corrected 1919).

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I. GEOGRAPHY PHYSICAL AND POLITICAL

(1) POSITION AND FRONTIERS

THE French possessions which form French Equatorial Africa consist of the colonies of Gabon (Gabon), Middle Congo (Moyen-Congo), and Ubanghi-Shari-Chad (Oubangui-Chari-Tchad), together with the Military Territory of Chad. A rearrangement of the territorial limits and names of these divisions was decided upon in 1914, but was postponed till after the war.

The total area of this region has been variously estimated; but allowing for the cession to the German colony of Cameroon of some 100,000 square miles in 1911 it is probably about 718,000 square miles.¹ In the south it touches the parallel of 5° south latitude, where the boundary between it and Cabinda reaches the Atlantic. Its most easterly point is situated at the head stream of the Mbomu in $27^{\circ} 25'$ east longitude. On the west its extreme point is Cape Lopez, north of the estuary of the Ogowe (Ogooué), in $8^{\circ} 40'$ east longitude, while towards the north the exact position of the frontier is still undetermined, although it is understood to reach to about the Tropic of Cancer.

On the south French Equatorial Africa is bordered by Angola and the Belgian Congo, and the boundaries between it and these colonies are discussed elsewhere (see *Angola*, No. 120, and *Belgian Congo*, No. 99 of this series). Between French Equatorial Africa and Cameroon the boundary, which was settled by the treaty of November 4, 1911, and the Declaration of September 28, 1912, leaves the Atlantic coast near the mouth of the Massolie on the eastern shore of the Bay of Monda

¹ The three southern districts have an area of about 389,900 square miles. The limits of the Military Territory are undefined, but a French estimate of 1913 gives an area of 850,000 square kilometres or 328,200 square miles.

and runs in a fairly uniform direction somewhat north of east to the confluence of the Sanga and the Ja (Dja, Dscha) or N'Goko, just north of Wesso (Ouessou). It then turns southwards to the Kandeko and descends by it, by the Lengwe or Bokiba (Bokida) and by the Likwala Mossaka, to the main stream of the Congo. The boundary then ascends the Sanga and its tributary, the Green Likwala (Likouala-aux-Herbes), as far as Botungo, runs in a north-north-westerly direction to Bera Nyoko (Njoko or N'Goko), turns north-east to the confluence of the Bodinge and the Lobaye, and descends the Lobaye eastward to its confluence with the Ubanghi, north of Mongoumba. As Germany was here to have a frontage on the Ubanghi of from three and three-quarters to seven and a half miles, this part of the Middle Congo colony is cut off from the colony of Ubanghi-Shari-Chad. The boundary between the latter colony and Cameroon leaves the Ubanghi at a point not yet determined, and runs first in a north-westerly and then in a more directly northern direction, following the courses of various minor rivers, till it strikes the eastern branch of the Logone near Gore. The frontier then follows the Logone to its confluence with the Shari, which forms the boundary to Lake Chad.

By the Declaration signed at London on March 21, 1899, it was settled that the boundary between French territory and the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan should begin where the Franco-Belgian frontier touched the Congo-Nile watershed, and should follow that watershed until it crossed the eleventh parallel of north latitude. From this point a line was to be drawn as far as the fifteenth parallel in such a way as to separate the Sultanate of Wadai (Ouadai) from the province of Darfur as it existed in 1882. The line thus drawn, however, was not to pass to the west of longitude 21° east, nor to the east of longitude 23° east. In principle it was also agreed that north of the fifteenth parallel the French zone should be limited by a line starting from the intersection of the Tropic of Cancer with the sixteenth degree of east longitude, and running in a south-easterly direction until it met the twenty-

fourth degree of east longitude. From there it was to follow the twenty-fourth meridian to the frontier of Darfur as it might ultimately be fixed. As a consequence of this treaty an agreement was arrived at in 1914 by Great Britain and France to delimit the Wadai-Darfur frontier.¹

Franco-German Commissions were appointed to delimit the frontier between Cameroon and French Equatorial Africa according to the treaty of 1911, and appear to have completed their work before the outbreak of war, but their arrangements do not seem to have been ratified.

The intercolonial boundaries need only be briefly indicated. The frontier of Gabun follows the watershed between the Ogowe and the Congo and upper Luesse, then turning south and running almost in a straight line to the most northerly point of Cabinda. The actual boundary between Ubanghi-Shari-Chad and the Military Territory of Chad is more conventional in character. From the Pennde or Eastern Logone, in latitude $8^{\circ} 25'$ north, a series of straight lines are drawn, first to the east and then approximately to the south-south-east, east-north-east, and north-north-east. From the point at which the last of these lines touches the Auk the boundary ascends that river² to the borders of the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan. Between French Equatorial Africa and French West Africa the frontier is still undetermined; but according to the terms of the decree of 1914 already mentioned it will eventually run from Lake Chad towards Rhat (Ghat) and west of the Agram oasis to the southern frontier of Algeria. It must here be noted that in 1916 the region of Tibesti was attached administratively to French West Africa as part of the Military Territory of the Niger.

French Equatorial Africa presents great diversities of surface, and the political divisions of the country

¹ By a supplementary Convention of September 8, 1919, the frontier was finally delimited. See *Anglo-Egyptian Sudan*, No. 98 of this series, pp. 4 and 169.

² Some maps call the upper Auk the Mamun, some give this name to a southern tributary. The boundary follows the northern stream.

correspond roughly with its natural regions. Gabun and Middle Congo belong in part to the region of coastal mountains and in part to the central basin of the Congo, and much of their land is covered with dense equatorial forest. Ubanghi-Shari-Chad belongs to the plateau country which separates the basin of the Congo from that of Lake Chad, and is a typical savanna land. The Military Territory of Chad slopes down from the plateau to the basin of Lake Chad, to which it mainly belongs. The region is transitional in every respect, and its type of vegetation changes from that of the savannas of the south to that of the deserts of the north.

(2) SURFACE, COAST, AND RIVER SYSTEMS

(a) *Surface*

Gabun and Middle Congo

A section across country from the Atlantic to the Congo shows in succession a narrow coastal plain backed by mountain ranges, the Ivindo-Ogowé valley belt, and a sandstone plateau.

The Coastal Mountains.—These are divided into several well-defined groups. To the north, beyond the Ogowe, lie the Crystal Mountains, which have an average height of over 2,000 ft., and send off numerous branches towards the coast. Between the Ogowe and the upper Ngunye, the coastal mountains are continued by what may be called the plateau of Ngunye, which extends as far as the Kwilu (Kouilou) and is traversed by many rivers. The soil here is thin. The central part of the plateau has a height of over 3,000 ft. in the north-east, but a thick bed of clay covers the surface, and the Nyanga flows through a fertile valley. Lastly, to the south of the Nyanga is the hilly country of Mayumba.

The Ivindo-Ogowé Valleys.—This region varies in height between 1,000 and 1,800 ft., and is in places very irregular in its surface features. The rivers are frequently interrupted by waterfalls and rapids, but

are sometimes almost level with the surface of the land, so that a very slight rise converts large areas into marsh. Much of the land is covered with forest.

The Plateau.—In the north the country to the east of the Ivindo has been much cut up by various rivers. Farther to the south is the Bateke plateau, which has a lower elevation, and whose sandy soil only supports a steppe vegetation.

The Congo Plains.—Middle Congo is a relatively flat country drained by the Congo, the Ubanghi, and the Sanga. Alluvial deposits accordingly cover considerable areas, and the greater part of the region falls within the limits of the great equatorial forest.

Ubanghi-Shari-Chad

The colony of Ubanghi-Shari-Chad is in general appearance an immense undulating plateau rising gently upward from the valley of the Ubanghi to a height of 1,000–2,000 ft., and falling somewhat more steeply to the plains of Lake Chad. Here and there, at intervals of from ten to twenty miles, groups of rocks (*kagas*) rise abruptly to a height of from 150 to 300 ft. or more. Great beds of sandstone cover a large part of the area, and thin out towards the north. The country is much dissected by rivers, on the upper courses of which rapids form a marked feature.

The Military Territory of Chad

From the geographical point of view the Military Territory of Chad, the northern limits of which have not been fixed, is not so easily classified as the preceding regions, and several distinct types of country may be recognized.

The southern part of the colony really belongs to the plateau of Ubanghi-Shari-Chad, and varies in height from 1,200 to 2,000 ft. Farther to the north it consists in the main of great plains of lacustrine origin interrupted here and there by hills of older rock. The slope of the land is so gentle that in the last 450 miles of its course the Shari has a fall of only about 360 ft.

The country in consequence is badly drained, and the surplus waters of the rivers form many ephemeral lakes.

The great plain of Bagirmi lies to the east of the basin of the Shari. It is very badly drained, and during the floods many large lakes and marshes are formed in the neighbourhood of Lake Fitri, which constitutes the drainage centre of the region. To the east and south-east of Bagirmi the Bahr Salamat drains an immense plain of bare clayey soil full of crevasses and depressions.

Throughout the greater part of the region which has just been described the chief breaks in the comparative monotony of the scenery are afforded by the rock hills, of which one well-known group lies near the right bank of the Shari below Niellim.

North of about the thirteenth parallel the country assumes a more desert-like appearance. In Kanem, to the north-east and east of Lake Chad, there are sandy plains dotted with lakes, only some of which are permanent. Away from the lake sand-dunes, often of considerable size, form the dominant features. Farther east, beyond the Bahr el-Ghazal, runs a long sandy plateau pierced in places by granitic rocks which rise to heights of several hundred feet. Nearer Lake Fitri the land becomes flat and much of it is marshy. Wadai, which here forms the eastern borderland of the country, is a hilly district of granitic and sandstone formation.

Of the more northerly districts comparatively little is known. The country known as Bodele consists of Egueï, Toro, Gossom, and Koru. Egueï is differentiated from the surrounding country by its dunes and its bushy vegetation. Rain only falls on an average once in seven years, but water is everywhere found at a slight distance below the surface between the dunes.

To the north of Egueï as far as Toro (250 miles), which is a depressed region, the land is entirely without water. The country to the east of Toro, however, which is known as Gossom, very much resembles Egueï. Koru is a region of mobile dunes, sometimes 150 to 200 ft. in height. Water is found in several places.

In the extreme north-east Ennedi, Borku, and Tibesti form the edge of the basin of Lake Chad, but this region is now included in French West Africa. Ennedi and Tibesti are mountainous, while Borkou forms a large depression between them and opens up communication from the basin of Chad to the Libyan desert. Water is plentiful here. Ennedi, which rises to heights of nearly 5,000 ft., is a massif of varied features. In the southern part of Tibesti the culminating point, Emi Kussi, is 11,155 ft. above sea-level, and from this summit there spread out in the form of a fan four and perhaps five chains, running towards the north-west, north, and north-east.

(b) *Coast*

The coast-line of Gabun has a length of over 500 miles. In the north it is often rock-bound; but to the south of Cape Lopez the coast is much flatter and broader, and is fringed in places by lagoons into which the rivers flow. These lagoons are cut off from the sea by sand-banks, and their mouths are continually changing.

The coast presents few facilities for the establishment of good ports, and vessels have usually to lie some distance off shore. The estuary of the Gabun river, however, which lies a few miles north of the equator, is accessible to the largest ships and affords commodious anchorage and good shelter. The least depth in the channel is said to be between 36 and 42 ft.; but even at Libreville, which is the chief port, ships have to anchor in the river and goods are trans-shipped by means of lighters.

The Bay of Cape Lopez, which penetrates into the delta islands of the Ogowe, has an excellent anchorage off the port of Manji. Farther to the south is Sette Cama, situated on the lagoon into which the Ndogu (Ndao) river flows; but, though it is a port of call, landing is often attended with considerable difficulty. Mayumba, some distance south of the mouth of the Nyanga, is situated on the Bay of Mayumba,

which affords good anchorage. Loango Bay, some distance south of the mouth of the Kwilu, is the most important anchorage on the southern part of the coast.

(c) *River Systems*

Gabun and Middle Congo

Rivers flowing to the Atlantic.—In the north the rivers are short and rapid. The most important system in the country is that of the Ogowe (Ogooué). This river, which has a length of 750 miles, rises in the plateau of Achikouyas and flows north-west to the confluence of the Ivindo. It then turns west and south-west to its delta south of Cape Lopez. After receiving the Ngunye (Ngounié) from the south it sends out numerous branches, some of which communicate with great lakes like Zonange to the south and Azingo to the north. The Ogowe is the only river which provides a route to the interior; but navigation is at all times difficult on account of rocks and sand-banks and the strong current.

South of the Ogowe, the most important rivers are the Nyanga and the Kwilu (Kouilou, Niadi or Niari). The latter, which is the more important, rises in the Bateke plateau, and flows first north-west and then south-west across the coastal plain. These rivers are of little value for purposes of navigation, but on the Nyanga moderately sized vessels can sail to Mongo, sixteen miles from the mouth of the river.

Rivers draining to the Congo.—The part of Middle Congo adjacent to Gabun is drained by tributaries of the Congo. Of these the most important are the Likwala Mossaka, the Alima, the Nkeni, and the Lefini. Farther to the east, in the detached portion of Middle Congo, the principal rivers are the Green Likwala (Likoualaux-Herbés), the Ubanghi, and the Congo. The first of these is, in the lower part of its course, a fairly deep river. Various arms, some of which are navigable, connect it with the Sanga and the Ubanghi. The

Ubanghi and the Congo, which form the eastern and southern boundary of this region, are here broad rivers. Steamers can make their way from Brazzaville to Bangi.

Ubanghi-Shari-Chad

This region falls partly within the basin of the Congo and partly within that of Lake Chad (Tchad). The Ubanghi and its tributary the Mbomu (M'Bomou) form the southern frontier of the colony from Bangi eastwards, and these rivers have several important right-bank affluents. The Mbomu flows for a considerable part of its course in broad reaches, interrupted here and there by rapids and falls. The Ubanghi passes through a relatively flat country, but at Setema it traverses a series of rapids, where it narrows from nearly two miles to about 400 yds. Below these it once more broadens out, but contracts again when it reaches the rapids below Mokwange.

The west and north of the colony belong to the basin of Lake Chad, and the principal rivers are the Shari (Chari) and the Logone. The Bahr Sara is now generally regarded as the master stream of the Shari system. It rises in Cameroon as the Wa or Wam (Ouahm), and it is only after its confluence with the Fafa that it becomes navigable.

The Gribingi is the principal right-bank tributary of the Shari. It rises in the Kaga Mbere, and in the upper part of its course encounters numerous rapids. Below Fort Crampel (Gribingi) it receives the Koddo and its bed becomes much more regular. On the Shari system there are considerable stretches of navigable waterway. The western part of the colony is drained by the Logone, which eventually flows into the Shari.

As the region lies within the belt of summer rainfall the rivers which belong to it are usually in flood towards the end of the rainy season. On the Ubanghi there is high water between June and December, while on the Shari the floods usually attain their maximum in September or October.

The Military Territory of Chad

In the Military Territory the river system undergoes a profound change, as, with the exception of the Shari and Logone, there are no perennial streams of any size in the country. Even the Bahr Salamat, which near Lake Iro has a breadth of over 600 ft. and banks over 15 ft. high, runs for a few months only each year. The Bahr el-Ghazal is probably an ancient emission from Lake Chad, and the amount of water which it contains varies from year to year according to the strength of the annual floods. Throughout the country are numerous wadis which are in flood during the rains, but at other times are dry. A number of these lead towards Lake Fittri, a shallow sheet of water about 150 miles east of Lake Chad.

(3) CLIMATE

Gabun and Middle Congo

Few meteorological data are available for Gabun and Middle Congo, but their general climatic character is fairly well known.

Rainfall.—In Gabun and the adjacent parts of Middle Congo the period of heaviest rainfall appears to occur between September and December, when the equatorial rain-belt is moving southwards; but from the latter part of December to the earlier part of February there is a considerable decrease. As the sun moves northward there is a second rainy season between the middle of February and the middle of May. Then follows the dry season, when rainfall is reduced to a minimum. On the whole the mean annual precipitation is greater in the north of the country than in the south.

In the detached portion of Middle Congo there is a heavy rainfall some time after both equinoxes, and there is also a well-marked minimum between the middle of December and the middle of February. On the other hand, there is no month without considerable precipitation.

Temperature.—Over the whole area the temperature is high throughout the year. At Libreville the annual mean is about 79° F. (26.1° C.), and the annual range from about 75° F. (23.8° C.) in July to about 80° F. (26.6° C.) in February, March, and April. The upland districts in the interior are cooler. At Brazzaville on Stanley Pool the mean temperature for the year is about 77° F. (25° C.), and the range from about 71° F. (21.6° C.) in July to about 80° F. (26.6° C.) in March.

Ubanghi-Shari-Chad

Rainfall.—On the whole it may be said that over the whole colony there are two seasons, a wet and a dry, the former occurring while the sun is north of the equator. The dry season is longer in the north of the colony than it is in the south. The rains proper begin in March, and the first maximum is reached in May, with a second maximum in October. The total rainfall for the year is probably under 70 inches. Farther to the north the dry season is longer and more pronounced. At Fort Crampel the four months, November to February, are practically rainless. The mean annual rainfall here is probably about 50 inches.

Temperature.—The temperature is everywhere high throughout the year, but shows a tendency to increase towards the north. At Mobaye, March (which is the hottest month) has a mean temperature of 80° F. (26.6° C.), and August (the coldest) one of 74° F. (23.3° C.). At Fort Crampel, farther to the north, the mean temperature of March is 83° F. (28.3° C.), and of July and January, the coldest months, 79.5° F. (26.4° C.). The range between day and night is often considerable, and in some places is as much as 30° F. (16.6° C.).

The Military Territory of Chad

Rainfall.—Meteorological observations are almost entirely wanting for the Military Territory. In the south the seasonal distribution of rainfall is similar to that in Ubanghi-Shari-Chad, but the dry season is

somewhat longer. The earlier maximum seems to take place in July and the later in September. The mean annual precipitation is probably about 40 inches.

Farther to the north, in the region of Lake Chad, the dry season lasts from the beginning of October till the end of June, and the wet season is confined to the months of July, August, and September. The rains occur as a result of local thunder-storms, and as a rule do not last for more than a few hours at a time.

Temperature.—In the south temperature conditions are somewhat similar to those in the north of Ubanghi-Shari-Chad. At Fort Archambault the hottest period is just before the beginning of the heavy rain, and the month of April has a mean temperature of 85° F. (29·4° C.). During the rains the temperature falls steadily till September, which has a mean of 76·4° F. (24·7° C.), while in January it falls to 76·1° F. (24·5° C.). Farther to the north, in the country near Lake Chad, the highest mean temperature (90° F., 32·2° C.) is in May and June. In August it is 80° F. (26·6° C.), but it rises again, then falls to a minimum of 65·5° F. (18·6° C.) in January. In this region, therefore, three seasons may be recognized, the cold, the hot, and the rainy.

(4) SANITARY CONDITIONS

Gabun and Middle Congo

In Gabun malaria is very common, but small-pox is no longer endemic in the region. Leprosy also appears to be on the decrease, and beri-beri is said only to occur among natives who have entered the colony from other districts. Sleeping-sickness is not at present widespread.

The diseases of Middle Congo are on the whole similar, but sleeping-sickness is much more prevalent. Dysentery, intestinal complaints, and affections of the digestive organs due to the presence of parasites, are all common. Small-pox is endemic.

Ubanghi-Shari-Chad

The principal dangers to which Europeans are exposed are malaria and sunstroke. Sleeping-sickness is the chief plague among the natives, and also threatens to attack Europeans.

The Military Territory of Chad

In the Military Territory the principal diseases among Europeans are malaria and dysentery, and among natives malaria, dysentery, and especially various forms of filariasis. Leprosy appears to exist in the east of the Territory. Smallpox appears to be declining, but venereal diseases are said to be widespread among the Arabs.

(5) RACE AND LANGUAGE

(a) *Race*

Gabun and Middle Congo

Gabun appears to be inhabited by several ethnic groups, but the relation in which these groups stand to one another is by no means clear. The following are the chief divisions:

(i) *The Okande group*.—The Mpongwes, one of the chief families of this group, are settled in the middle and lower valley of the Ogowe. The Oroungos occupy a considerable part of the delta land of the same river. The Goloas are found round Lambarene, while the Eshira-Ashango tribes live on both sides of the Ngunye. Physically, the differences between these families are very slight, and they appear to be vigorous and intelligent.

(ii) *The Fiot group*.—To this group belong the Bavilis or Loangos, who occupy the country on both sides of the lower Kwilu, and the Bayakas, along the Niari or upper Kwilu. The Baloumbos, the Bapounos, and other tribes occupy the lower basin of the Nyanga and the neighbouring districts, and appear to be derived from an intermixture of Okande and Fiot

blood. The Fiot peoples are, as a rule, of less than average stature.

(iii) *The Bateke group*.—The Batekes, and the Balallis with whom they are closely connected, occupy the Bateke plateau. Farther to the north other tribes, such as the Mbochis, are probably of mixed Bateke and Orande blood.

(iv) *The Fans or Pahouins*.—This group of comparatively recent invaders occupies the country north of the Ogowe and west of the Ivindo. The Fans are generally tall, muscular, and well made.

(v) The *Bakotas* occupy much of the country which lies to the north of the Likwala Mossaka.

(vi) The *Bakales* live in the districts south of the middle Ogowe, and form an enclave between the Pahouins in the north and the Eshira-Ashango peoples in the south. They are generally tall in stature, and chocolate-brown in colour.

The detached portion of Middle Congo is occupied in the main by the *Mbwakas*, who belong to the Banda group which inhabits the greater part of Ubanghi-Shari-Chad.

Ubanghi-Shari-Chad

The principal peoples of Ubanghi-Shari-Chad are the Mandjias, the Bandas, and the Zandes or Niam-Niams. They belong, in the main, to the Sudanese family.

(i) The *Mandjias* are settled in the west of the country, in the watershed between the Shari and Ubanghi basins, and are divided into numerous tribes. In appearance they are not unlike the Mbwakas of Middle Congo.

(ii) The *Bandas* are almost entirely localized in the colony, where they occupy the greater part of the central and eastern district. Many different tribes have been recognized. Physically they resemble the Mandjias, but are taller.

(iii) The *Zandes* inhabit the extreme south-east of the colony, but the riverain peoples almost as far west as the bend of the Ubanghi are probably connected with

them. Their physique is considerably above the average.

(iv) In the extreme north-west of the country some *Sara* tribes live round the Nana Baria, a tributary of the Bahr Sara, but the majority of these people live in the Military Territory.

The Military Territory of Chad

As a result of its great geographical diversity the Military Territory of Chad is inhabited by peoples of very different ethnic origin. The Sudanese and Arab elements are the most important.

(i) The *Saras* occupy a large part of the country drained by the Shari and its tributaries. They fall into two great groups, one of which lies to the west, and the other to the east, of that river. The western group is split up into a great number of tribes, which probably represent an intermixture of the indigenous inhabitants with Sudanese from the east. The eastern group, which is less extensive, occupies a considerable stretch of country on either side of the lower course of the Bahr Salamat. The *Saras* are, as a rule, tall and well made, and often possess great physical strength.

(ii) The *Bagirmis* appear to be derived from an intermixture of negro and Arab blood. They cover a considerable extent of country to the east of the Shari, south of Fort Lamy. The *Bulalas* and the *Kukas* in the region to the south-east of Lake Fittri are also negroid tribes with an intermixture of Arab blood.

The *Budumas* and the *Kuris* who inhabit the islands in the archipelago of Lake Chad have, thanks to their isolation, preserved their original characteristics.

The *Kanembus* form the sedentary population of Kanem. The purity of their race has been affected by various invaders.

(iii) *The Arab Tribes*.—The Arabs are widely distributed over the northern part of the country, but in many cases there has been considerable intermixture

with negro blood. The Ulad-Sliman who live in the north of Kanem appear to be an almost pure stock.

The Ulad-Rachid occupy considerable stretches of country on the right bank of the Bat-ha and in the upper basin of the Bahr Salamat. They are said to possess a strong admixture of negro blood. The Dekakires on the right bank, and the Yessies on the left bank, of the Bahr Laïri, appear to be of similar origin, and also the Khozzams who inhabit the country farther to the north-west. The Salamats, to the south of Am Timan, are known as black Arabs, on account of the large amount of negro blood in their veins.

(iv) *The Tibbus*.—In the region of the Bahr el-Ghazal there are a number of tribes whose original home appears to have been in the Tibesti highlands, and who possess many of the characteristics of the Tuaregs, a people of Berber stock. They are spoken of as a well-made, fine-looking race, without any trace of Sudanese negro blood, although in colour they are almost black.

(v) *The Peoples of Wadai*.—Wadai, though it is still very imperfectly known, seems to be inhabited by a variety of races. The negro appears to have reached the region partly from the Nile and partly from the Central Sudan. The Arab element is also strong in the country, and there are several tribes belonging to the Tibbu family.

(b) *Language*

In Gabun and Middle Congo the people speak dialects of the Bantu language. Elsewhere in this region the Bateke group of dialects is the most important. In Ubanghi-Shari-Chad and in the Military Territory conditions are more complicated. The Negroid peoples use one or other of the various Sudanese languages, but where they have come under Arab influence they often speak a little Arabic as well. In Ubanghi-Shari-Chad the Bunda language is slightly akin in structure and vocabulary to the Bantu form of speech. Among the Sara peoples, on the other hand,

there is no single language. The Tibbu tribes speak dialects which are probably derived from some primitive Tibbu-Berber language. These now show little connexion with Berber, but in the south have become assimilated to Sudanese negro dialects. Arabic is spoken by a number of the Arab peoples.

(6) POPULATION

All the figures given for the population of French Equatorial Africa appear to be unreliable. The *Annuaire du Gouvernement général de l'Afrique française* gives 15,000,000 as the total, but this figure is obviously too high. Another estimate (1915) is 9,000,000. The only detailed figures are as follows: Gabun (1911), 259,000; Middle Congo (1913), 591,000; and the Military Territory of Chad (1911), 1,400,000. These are probably too low.

II. POLITICAL HISTORY

CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY

- 1839. Cession of Gabun to France.
- 1848. Foundation of Libreville.
- 1862. Exploration of Ogowé begun.
- 1875-78. De Brazza on the Ogowé.
- 1880-84. De Brazza in rivalry with Stanley establishes French influence north of Congo.
- 1884-85. Berlin Conference ; recognition of Congo Free State. Boundary Treaty between France and Congo.
- 1885. Boundary Treaty with Germany (December 24).
- 1886. Boundary Convention with Portugal (May 12).
- 1887. Boundary with Congo Free State fixed at Ubanghi (April 29).
- 1894. Boundary with Germany carried up to Lake Chad (March 15). Mbomu river constituted boundary with Congo Free State.
- 1898. Boundary from the Niger to Lake Chad fixed with Great Britain (June 14).
- 1899. Boundary with Anglo-Egyptian Sudan fixed (March 21). Policy of development by concessionaire companies begun.
- 1900. Boundary of Spanish Guinea determined ; right of pre-emption secured by France.
- 1901. Protests by British firms against proceedings of concessionaire companies.
- 1904. Further adjustment of boundary from the Niger to Lake Chad with Great Britain (April 8).
- 1906. Settlement of claims of British companies.
- 1908. Appointment of M. Merlin as Governor-General. Boundary Convention with Germany (April 18).
- 1910. Settlement of the question of concessionaire companies. Pacification of Chad.
- 1911. Cession to Germany of large areas, giving access to the Congo and Ubanghi. Renunciation in favour of Germany of right of pre-emption over Spanish Guinea (November 4).
- 1912. Declaration providing for detailed arrangements under Treaty of 1911 (September 28).
- 1919. Supplementary Convention (Sept. 8) as to boundary with Sudan.

(1) Acquisition of the Congo.

FRENCH sovereignty in the Congo area was first established by a treaty of February 9, 1839, under which the King of Gabun, who was on friendly terms with French missionaries and traders, ceded his territory to France. Effective occupation took place in 1844; and in 1848 the capital, Libreville, was founded with a draft of freed slaves. The territory was explored in several expeditions by du Chaillu; and from 1862 onwards French control was extended till it reached the Ogowe river.

In 1875, however, Savorgnan de Brazza began a series of explorations which led him beyond the hills at the head of the Ogowe to the Alima, which flows east into the River Congo. When the news of Stanley's great journey down the Congo became known, de Brazza, who had returned to Europe, was despatched to Africa as the agent of the French Committee of the International African Association, ostensibly on a mission to explore the territory between Gabun and Lake Chad, but with authority from the French Government to acquire political control over the territories which he visited. In 1880, therefore, de Brazza not only established a post on the Ogowe, but obtained a treaty from a chief which enabled him to found a post, now Brazzaville, to the north of Stanley Pool, and even to secure a footing on the south bank of the River Congo. During the next few years, in close rivalry with the agents of the International Association of the Congo, he secured further treaties with chiefs along the Congo. The difficulties which resulted were only removed by the exchange of Notes of April 23, 1884, which secured to France the right of pre-emption over the Congo Free State, and by the Convention of February 5, 1885 (annexed to the Act of the Berlin Conference), which settled in general terms the boundary line between the French Congo and the Congo Free State. The actual boundary in

the Manyanga region was fixed by the Protocol of November 22, 1885; and the Protocol of April 29, 1887, fixed the boundary north of the Congo as the *thalweg* of the Ubanghi up to 4° north latitude, the Congo Free State agreeing not to exercise any political influence on the right bank of the river north of that parallel, while France gave a similar undertaking as regards the left bank.

The efforts of King Leopold to extend the territory of the Congo Free State to the Nile in the years after 1890 brought him into conflict with French expansion in the same direction. The dispute was finally settled by the Agreement of August 14, 1894, which conceded to the Congo Free State a boundary running along the River Mbomu to its source; thence the frontier continued in a straight line to the Congo-Nile watershed, and along the watershed to its intersection with 30° east longitude. In return, the Congo Free State undertook to confine its activities to the region east and south of a line which, following the meridian of 30° east longitude from its intersection with the watershed to 5° 30' north latitude, continues along that parallel to the Nile. The Franco-Belgian Agreement of December 23, 1908, which followed the annexation of the Congo Free State by Belgium, confirmed the French right of pre-emption over the Belgian Congo, and assigned to France the island of Bamou (M'Bamou) in Stanley Pool, placing it, however, under a regime of perpetual neutrality.

The boundary with Angola was fixed by Art. III of the Convention of May 12, 1886, Portugal being allowed for sentimental reasons to retain the Cabinda enclave to the north of the Congo. The boundary with Cameroon was determined by the Protocol of December 24, 1885, under which Germany agreed not to claim any territory south of a line from the mouth of the Campo (Ntem) river to its intersection with 10° east longitude, following the parallel of latitude of that point to 15° east longitude. The further demarcation of the boundary between Cameroon and French Congo was provided

for by the Convention of March 15, 1894; but this was superseded by the Convention of April 18, 1908. The difficulties between France and Germany over the question of Morocco, however, rendered further changes necessary; and the Convention of November 4, 1911, which recognized the French protectorate over Morocco, was accompanied by a Convention, signed the same day, making large territorial cessions to Germany.¹ Under this arrangement German territory was carried to the south of Spanish Guinea, a short distance north of Libreville, the capital of Gabun; the territory on both banks of the Sanga river down to its confluence with the Congo was surrendered by France, Germany receiving access to the Congo by means of an area on the river bank of not less than 6 or more than 12 kilometres; similar access was given to the Ubanghi by the cession of the area intervening between the rivers Lobaye and Ngabo Lesse; the upper course of the Logone was surrendered; and the only compensation afforded was the cession by Germany of territory between the Shari and the Logone.

Germany, however, undertook not to oppose the construction of a railway by France from Gabun to the Middle Congo and thence to Ubanghi-Shari-Chad, if desired; but she reserved the right to take a part in the work. In return France bound herself not to interfere with the extension of a railway from Cameroon. Germany also agreed to lease to France the necessary ground for establishing posts on the Benue, the Mayo-Kebi (Mao-Kabi), and in the direction of the Logone, as bases of supply for troops in transit, similar privileges being conferred on Germany. France, moreover, acquired the right to transport troops by the German railway which was to be constructed in the north of Cameroon. Both Powers explicitly renewed the assurances of freedom of trade and navigation on the

¹ Cd. 6010; Cd. 5970. See also *French Morocco*, No. 101 of this series, p. 88. L. Regismanset (*Questions coloniales*, Paris, 1912, pp. 226-46) gives a summary of the French side of the transaction.

Congo and the Niger and their affluents, and on the railways of the two territories, as laid down by the Act of Berlin. Finally, while France refused to transfer to Germany her right of pre-emption over the Belgian Congo, she agreed that in the event of the modification of the territorial status of the conventional basin of the Congo by the act of either Power, that Power would be bound to confer with the other, and with the other Powers signatory to the Berlin Act. The terms of the Treaty of 1911 were made definite by a Declaration of September 28, 1912, which laid down principles affecting the demarcation of the boundary, defined the exact conditions in which the territories ceded by the two Powers should be handed over, and detailed the principles affecting the position of the concessionaire companies in the areas ceded by France.

The net result of the transaction was the loss to France of about 270,000 square kilometres in exchange for some 15,000 square kilometres, and a net loss of population roughly estimated at a million out of a total of 6,500,000. The area still left to France, however, consisted of 1,945,000 square kilometres; German apologists laid stress on the unfertile and inaccessible character of much of the territory ceded, and on the prevalence of sleeping-sickness. On the other hand, besides obtaining access to the Congo, as a preliminary to further designs on that colony, Germany secured a considerable area of valuable territory in the Sanga valley, which had been opened up successfully by concessionaire companies.

(2) *Boundary Questions*

Boundary with Anglo-Egyptian Sudan.—The boundary arrangements concluded in 1894 with Germany and with the Congo Free State were in some sort completed by similar arrangements made in 1898 and 1899 with Great Britain, for the definition of French rights on Lake Chad, and of Franco-British spheres of influence in Darfur and in the Bahr el-Ghazal province

of the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan. The adjustment of the latter was rendered necessary by Marchand's advance from the Congo to the Nile in 1896-98. By Art. IV of the Convention of June 14, 1898, it was agreed to recognize as falling within the French sphere the northern, eastern, and southern shores of Lake Chad comprised between the point of intersection of 14° north latitude with the western shore of the lake, and the point of incidence on the shore of the lake of the frontier determined by the Franco-German Convention of March 15, 1894.

By the Declaration of March 21, 1899, supplementary to this Article, and the supplementary convention of September 8, 1919, the limits of the British and French spheres of interest were determined as described above (see p. 2). By Art. VIII of the Anglo-French Treaty of April 8, 1904, it was provided that France should be assured such a frontier on Lake Chad as would secure open water communication between her possessions to the north-west and those to the north-east of the lake. The French control of Chad was rendered effective by the defeat of Rabah in 1900, and by General Largeau's victories in 1910-14, which reduced Wadai to subjection. Largeau's victories were of great importance. Tibesti and Borku were occupied, with the result that, after the occupation of El Fasher by Great Britain, there was no independent native Mohammedan state left south of the Sahara east of Lake Chad.

The Boundary with Spanish Territory.—Spanish claims of long-standing were recognized and defined by the Convention of June 27, 1900, which gave France a right of pre-emption over Spanish Guinea; but this right was waived in favour of Germany by an exchange of Notes on November 4, 1911.¹

(3) *Internal Affairs*

The General Act of the Berlin Conference provided for complete freedom of trade in the basin of the Congo, and prohibited not only differential treatment

¹ Cd. 6010, p. 16.

and commercial monopolies, but also the levying of import duties. This ruling affected a large portion of French Equatorial Africa, including Middle Congo and much of Ubanghi-Shari-Chad, but not the northern part of Gabun, to which, accordingly, was applied the French law of January 11, 1892, imposing the metropolitan tariff of France. For the territory in the conventional area the strict prohibition of duties was relaxed by the Act of the Brussels Conference of 1890, which became effective by the Protocol of Lisbon of April 8, 1892, to the extent of allowing the imposition of duties of 10 per cent. *ad valorem*; but the revenues so derived were quite insufficient to develop the enormous territory acquired by de Brazza.

The apparent success of the Congo State regime after 1891, in the development of its territories by companies, led in 1899 to the decision of the French Government, despite the advice of the local officials, to adopt the same policy in French Congo. Practically all the useful land in the Gabun, Middle Congo, Sanga, and Ubanghi regions, was conceded to 42 companies, who were given for the period of thirty years sole rights to the natural products of the territory thus conceded, including rubber, gum, ivory, wood, palm oil, and the products of fisheries and hunting. In return for these concessions the companies agreed, in addition to certain fixed payments, to pay 15 per cent. of their profits to the colony, to provide steamers on certain rivers, and to perform other public services.

The effect of these concessions was not long in making itself felt. The natives were forbidden by the French Government to sell any of the produce which they collected to any but the companies, while the companies held that the natives had no right to the products, and should only be paid for collecting them in goods, the value of which the companies fixed. The British firms which had hitherto been dealing with the natives complained of their treatment,¹ the con-

¹ There is a clear statement of their case in the *Journal of the*

cessionaires (it was stated) not only proceeding to acts of violence against the British representatives, but also obtaining the decision of the local courts that their trading with the natives was illegal.

The situation was further aggravated by the unrest caused by the imposition from 1899 onwards of a capitation tax. This was a form of taxation to which the population was unaccustomed; it was condemned by de Brazza,¹ who was sent to the colony to report on the situation. The British Government protested against the treatment of the British firms; and so clear was their case² that in May 1906 it was settled by the payment of 1,500,000 francs and the grant of 30,000 hectares. Fortunately the French Government realized that French Congo was rapidly bidding fair to rival the Congo Free State in maladministration through the steps taken by some of its officials to further the interests of the companies, and decided on a change of policy. The Governor-General, M. Merlin, who was appointed in 1908 to introduce reforms, succeeded by an agreement of June 13, 1910, in obtaining from six companies in Gabon the surrender of 6,000,000 hectares in exchange for a grant of 125,000 hectares. Another agreement of June 13, 1910, made with eleven companies in the Sanga-Ubanghi district, sanctioned their fusion into one company. In return the companies' monopoly over 17,000,000 hectares was converted into a monopoly of the rubber only, and the period of the concession was reduced to ten years, with permission to exploit for a further ten years an area ten times the extent of the amount actually brought into cultivation before 1919. Fifteen per cent. of the profits of the new company for a period of 99 years was secured to the Government.

Agreements with the majority of the remaining

African Society, ii, 38-43, and a bibliography of the controversy in E. D. Morel, *Africa and the Peace of Europe* (London, 1917), p. 53.

¹ Cited in *Journal of African Society*, v. 87-89.

² It is admitted by C. Humbert, *L'Œuvre française aux Colonies*, pp. 46-53.

concessionaire companies have also been concluded, making it certain that in due course the territory will be freed from the burden of the concessions.¹ The areas of the concessionaire companies in the Sanga district passed to Germany by the Convention of November 4, 1911, the rights and obligations of the French Government being expressly transferred; but the German Chancellor, in his speech in the Reichstag on November 9, 1911, laid stress on the fact that German administration and jurisdiction would prevent abuses.² Meanwhile, M. Merlin, with the aid of a loan of 15,000,000 francs (out of a nominal 21,000,000 francs), took effective steps to extend French control over the native tribes throughout the territory, and important reforms were instituted in the organization of the administration and of the judiciary, as also in education and sanitary measures.

¹ A list of the companies and their payments is given in Cd. 7048—66, p. 8.

² Cd. 5970, p. 4.

III. SOCIAL AND POLITICAL CONDITIONS

(1) RELIGIOUS

GABUN and part of Middle Congo lie beyond the full range of Mohammedan influence. Mohammedanism, on the other hand, is particularly flourishing in the region between the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan and Lake Chad, where religious feeling often finds expression in attacks on pagan tribes. Christianity, even in the coast region, has made, and promises to make, little progress. There is, in fact, no effective rival to Mohammedanism, which makes the same appeal to the natives of Equatorial Africa as elsewhere in the continent. It involves practically no discarding of fetishism and sanctions polygamy, which the dependence of the native on his family for labour renders an essential part of the native economy ; it approves domestic slavery, which is the complement of polygamy. It is also largely a proselytizing faith ; and there seems ground to believe that its adherents are increasing in number. On the other hand, it must be remembered that the Mohammedanism which is thus propagated is intellectually degraded in character, since the negroes who accept it are of a very primitive mentality.

(2) POLITICAL

Government-General.—A decree of the President of the French Republic of December 29, 1903, constituted the Colony of French Congo and its dependencies, and divided it into Gabun, Middle Congo, Ubanghi-Shari, and Chad. By the decree of January 15, 1910, the name French Congo was changed into

French Equatorial Africa, while the territories in question were reorganized as the three colonies of Gabun, Middle Congo, and Ubanghi-Shari-Chad, to which is attached the Military Territory of Chad. Until 1915 each colony formed a separate administrative and financial unit, administered by a Lieutenant-Governor under the supreme control of the Governor-General at Brazzaville; but by the decrees of May 14, 1915, and April 12, 1916, the Chad territory was defined and placed directly under the Governor-General. The Governor-General represents the authority of the Republic in the whole territory; he is the sole channel of correspondence with the French Government,¹ and is in supreme control of all civil and military establishments. He appoints to non-pensionable offices and nominates to pensionable offices. He is assisted by a Secretary-General and a Council of Government composed of the Secretary-General, the three Lieutenant-Governors, the chief of the military forces, the head of the judiciary, the delegate of Equatorial Africa to the *Conseil supérieur des Colonies*, one notable from each of the Councils of Administration of the three colonies, and the *chef du cabinet* of the Governor-General. This body is required to meet once a year, and the Governor-General must act with it in fixing the boundaries of the colonies, in determining taxation of all kinds, subject to the approval of the French Government, and in settling the budget of the General Government and of the several colonies. He may consult it on any other matters or, in its stead, a permanent Committee which consists of practically the same members, excluding those not normally resident in the Middle Congo. Legislation for the territories is effected by laws of the Republic, or normally by Presidential decrees, while the Governor-General has wide powers of issuing *arrêtés* or administrative regulations.

Local Governments.—The Lieutenant-Governors are responsible for the administration of each colony;

¹ The Treasury, however, deals direct with the French Minister of Finances under the decree of December 30, 1912.

they have the power of issuing *arrêtés*, and in their functions have the assistance of Councils of Administration, consisting of the head of the Secretariat, the inspector of administration, the officer commanding the battalion stationed in the colony, a high legal official, and two notables nominated for two years from French citizens. This Council may be consulted on any subject; and it must be consulted in matters relating to taxation, to the budget, to the fixing of districts, and to all alienations of the *domaines privés ou publics*, important contracts, and expropriation of land. By adding two legal members the Councils become qualified to act as tribunals dealing with questions of administrative law which do not go before the ordinary courts.

Administration.—By far the larger portion of the territory was until recently in military occupation, and not subjected to regular civil government. About two-thirds of the Middle Congo area is under civil control. In the parts settled by Europeans the Governor-General in Council is authorized to establish *Communes*, the mode of appointment of the governing body, its powers and revenues, being defined specially for each case.¹ In the territory under military occupation the native chiefs continue to rule, subject only to a quasi-political control by the military commanders. This system may be regarded as a transitory condition preparatory to the establishment of full civil control, as at present existent in French West Africa,² and no development of it on the lines of the native government of the Northern Provinces of Nigeria appears to be projected.

Judiciary.—Two sets of courts exist, French and Native, whose powers are regulated by a decree of April 13, 1913, which replaces an earlier but defective

¹ Decree of March 4, 1911.

² M. Merlin claimed in 1913 that 60 per cent. of the country was administered, as against 20 per cent. in 1908, and that only 20 per cent. of the whole was foreign to French control. There are 59 administrative divisions.

decree of May 10, 1910. The competence of French Courts is exclusive in all cases affecting French citizens,¹ Europeans generally, and such natives as enjoy in their place of origin a status equivalent to that of Europeans. By consent native cases may be heard by these tribunals, which then apply native law, and may be assisted by assessors, European or native, unless the natives prefer to have French law applied. The courts form an elaborate hierarchy : (1) Justices of the Peace, appointed from among administrative officers, with the powers of police tribunals in criminal matters in France, and with the powers of French *tribunaux de paix* in civil matters ; (2) Tribunals of First Instance at Brazzaville, Libreville, and Bangi, and Justices of the Peace with extended powers at Loango, Wesso, and Cape Lopez, who exercise appellate jurisdiction over the decisions of Justices, criminal jurisdiction in all cases of contraventions and *délits* (in the latter case subject to appeal), and civil jurisdiction in all civil and commercial matters (subject to appeal where the capital value of the subject matter exceeds 2,000 fr.) ; (3) a Court of Appeal at Brazzaville, to hear appeals from Courts of First Instance and Justices of the Peace with extended powers ; and (4) a Criminal Court, normally at Brazzaville, but liable to be transferred to any of the other capitals, with exclusive jurisdiction in the case of crimes proper. Proceedings in the colony may be subject to revision by the *Cour de Cassation* in France. The so-called Native Courts deal with other cases. Such courts are formed in each administrative division, or if necessary in subdivisions ; they are presided over by the chief administrative officer of the division, who is assisted by assessors, one European, one native, who have, however, only advisory functions. The court applies local custom in so far as this is in accordance with the principles of French civilization. In civil matters its decision is final ; in criminal matters it can impose the death penalty, imprison-

¹ A decree of May 23, 1912, specifies conditions on which educated natives can become French citizens.

ment, fine, or banishment ; but any sentence exceeding two years' imprisonment may be appealed against to the Court of Homologation at Brazzaville, which consists of the members of the Court of Appeal and two other persons nominated by the Governor-General. In addition the Procurator-General can appeal to that court against any sentence whatever, or against an acquittal.

(3) MILITARY

In 1907 the total military force was only two battalions, consisting of about 2,100 men. In 1908 the number was increased to four battalions, one in each colony and one in the Chad territory. In 1909 a second battalion was added for Chad ; and the force, which had hitherto been under the General Officer commanding at Dakar, was placed under a Colonel commanding-in-chief at Brazzaville. In 1911 a third battalion was placed in the Chad territory ; and in the following year the Governor-General proposed the increase of the force in each colony to two battalions, commanded by Lieutenant-Colonels, each consisting of four companies in the case of Gabun, and of three in that of the other colonies. Each company was to be 200 strong, and the first company of the first battalion in each case was to be stationed at the capital, to act as a reserve and a depot, and to have attached to it an instruction camp for recruits.

(4) EDUCATIONAL

Lack of funds has hitherto prevented any substantial progress in the provision of education for the natives. The principles, however, are laid down by an *arrêté* of April 4, 1911, which provides for elementary and advanced education and for professional education. Primary elementary education comprises French, reading, writing, elementary arithmetic, and practical lessons mainly connected with agriculture and hygiene. Advanced education adds the metric system, a sum-

mary knowledge of contemporary French history and of the history of the French African Colonies, especially that of French Equatorial Africa, elementary geography, science as applied to hygiene and agriculture, and elementary medical knowledge. Professional education includes training to fit youths as blacksmiths, metal-workers, masons, carpenters, &c. Primary elementary education is given either in urban schools under European teachers, such schools having been established at Brazzaville, Libreville, Bangi, and Nola, or in schools established in each division and conducted under the control of the head of the divisional staff. Advanced education is given only in the urban schools, but will be extended later ; professional training is afforded at Brazzaville, Libreville, and Mobaye. In the urban schools, when necessary, provision is made for special departments for girls, where they will be taught, in addition to the ordinary subjects, washing, ironing, sewing, cooking, and housewifery. In the meantime, however, by far the greater part of the children have no opportunity of receiving any education whatever from the State. Among the Mohammedans, as in West Africa, a system of instruction obtains to the extent of teaching the children to repeat verses of the Koran which they do not understand.

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS

(1) *France and Germany*

Germany's annexation of Cameroon diminished the value of the French territories, and, taken in conjunction with the French failure to secure the Congo, explains the comparative indifference shown in France to the work of de Brazza. To Germany, on the other hand, French Equatorial Africa forms a barrier to the acquisition of the Congo, which for some time has been an object of German ambition, and the way to which was in some measure prepared by the Convention of 1911, which secured to Germany access to the

Congo. This ambition, and the close proximity of Cameroon to the Congo, sufficiently explain the desire of France to secure, if possible, the reversion of most of Cameroon and thus definitely to shut off German access to the Congo. Her claims in this respect have been satisfied by the recent Treaty of Peace (1919).

(2) *France and the United Kingdom*

By the Berlin Act equality of treatment in all matters of trade and navigation is secured to British subjects in the basin of the Congo, including much, though not all, of the most valuable territory in French Equatorial Africa. This is supplemented, as regards the region from the Chad to the Sudan, by the provisions of the agreement of March 21, 1899, which includes in the zone of equal treatment in matters of trade and navigation for a period of thirty years from June 13, 1899, the region south of $14^{\circ} 20'$ north latitude, and north of 5° north latitude, between $14^{\circ} 20'$ east longitude and the course of the Upper Nile.

(3) *France and Italy*

The occupation of Tripoli and Cyrenaica by Italy in 1912 has naturally resulted in a desire to extend her influence southward; and the contemplated trans-Sahara railway from Tripoli might possibly involve some arrangement with France respecting territory in the north-eastern Sahara.

IV. ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

(A) MEANS OF COMMUNICATION

(1) INTERNAL

(a) *Roads, Paths, and Tracks*

THE only road in the colony runs from Fort Sibut (Krebeje) to Fort Crampel (Gribingi), a distance of 94 miles, and connects the navigable waters of the Tomi and the Gribingi, on the main route to Lake Chad. It was opened for wheeled traffic in 1912, and can be used by motors except at the height of the rainy season ; it is proposed to perfect it, to continue it southwards to Bangi, and to start a regular motor service. Further, about 750 miles of paths or tracks have been made by the French ; but communication in the equatorial forest, which covers the whole country south of 5° north latitude, is chiefly by waterway.

The main lines of communication with the territory round Lake Chad are as follows :—

i. To the north :

- a. Fort Lamy to Tripoli, *via* Mao, Ngigmi (N'Guigmi), Bilma, and Murzuk.
- b. Fort Lamy to Ben Ghasi, *via* Ati, Abeshr, Wanyanga, and Kufra.

ii. To the east :

- a. Fort Lamy to El Obeid in the Sudan, *via* Ati, Abeshr, and El Fasher.
- b. Fort Lamy to Fort Crampel and to Kafiakinji, *via* Ndele.

iii. To the south :

Fort Lamy to Fort Crampel (by river) and thence to Bangi, *via* Fort Sibut.

iv. To the west :

- a. Fort Lamy to Kano in Northern Nigeria, *via* Mao, Ngigmi, and Zinder.
- b. Fort Lamy to Southern Nigeria by the Logone and Benue rivers.

(b) *Rivers*

There are in the colony about 4,750 miles of waterways navigable for steamers during the whole or part of the year. Of these, 1,000 miles belong to the Gabun or coastal system, 2,500 miles to the Congo basin, and 1,250 miles to the Chad system. Unfortunately, however, the navigation of nearly all the rivers is much interrupted by rapids. The colony possesses between 50 and 60 steamers ranging from 3 to 300 tons, as well as a number of flat-bottomed barges, motor-boats, &c. The chief navigable waterways, with their steamer services, are as follows :

Gabun System.

i. *The Ogowe and its Affluents.*—(a) On the main stream navigation is always possible from Port Gentil to Njole (Ndjole); a regular service is maintained by two paddlewheel steamers, of 180 and 150 tons, belonging to the Chargeurs Réunis. From Njole two small steamers of 15 tons each, belonging to the Société Gabonaise d'Entreprises et de Transports, ascend when there is sufficient depth of water to the falls of Boue. The same company has placed on the river above the falls a 12-ton steamer, which plies to the next rapids, the falls of Bunji, below Lastoursville.

(b) The Ivindo below Makoku is rendered unnavigable by rapids. The Société Gabonaise has transported to Makoku another 12-ton steamer which navigates the upper reaches of the river and its affluents, of which 400 miles are said to be navigable.

(c) On the Ngunye the two paddlewheel steamers of the Chargeurs Réunis sometimes ascend as far as the falls of Samba above Sindara. The Société Gabonaise has placed another small steamer on the river above

these rapids, for service on the middle reach of the river from Nagoshi to Muila (60 miles).

ii. *The Coastal Rivers and Lagoons.*—The paddlewheel steamers of the Chargeurs Réunis are sometimes able to navigate the lagoons of Fernan Vaz, which, in common with the rivers Komo (Como), Kwilu (Kouilou, Niadi or Niari), and others, are also traversed by small steamers and motor-boats belonging to the local planters or trading companies.

Congo System.

i. *Stanley Pool.*—The service across Stanley Pool, between Brazzaville and Kinshassa, is carried on by the Belgian company La 'Citas' (Compagnie Internationale de Transport au Stanley pool). Steamers run three times weekly each way.

ii. *The Congo and Ubanghi.*—The service up the Congo and Ubanghi between Brazzaville and Bangi (935 miles) is maintained by the Compagnie des Messageries Fluviales du Congo, which has a fleet of 11 screw or paddlewheel steamers of from 20 to 300 tons burden, and 13 barges. In the dry season (October–April) the large boats cannot go higher than the rapids of Zinga, and when the stream is very low they are unable to proceed beyond Dongu, at the confluence of the Ibenga. It is believed that the stream could easily be made permanently navigable as far as Bangi for the company's largest steamers. The service is monthly; and the journey up-stream takes 10 to 12 days, down-stream about half that time.

iii. *The Tributaries of the Congo and Ubanghi between Brazzaville and Bangi.*—The only regular service is that maintained by the Messageries Fluviales up the Sanga to Wesso (312 miles from the confluence), but several other companies and organizations own steamers and barges, and in this part of the colony there are 47 steamers. By the Franco-German Agreement of 1912 Wesso was left in French territory: otherwise the whole course of the river was ceded to Germany, and by an agreement of December 1912 the Kameruner Schifffahrtsgesellschaft took over the steamship service.

Above Wesso the Sanga is navigable for small steamers to Nola (181 miles), and sometimes to Bania, and the Ja (Dja, Dscha) is navigable to Ngoila (Soufflay): the Green Likwala (Likouala-aux-Herbes), which joins the Sanga 25 miles above Bonga, is navigable as far as Botungo.

Of the other tributaries of the Congo and Ubanghi, the Lobaye, Ibenga, and Nkeni are navigable for small steamers in the rainy season only, the first as far as Loko (44 miles), the second to Enyelle (E'Niellé, 55 miles), and the last to Enzien. The Likwala Mossaka is navigable for steamers of medium size as far as Makua (165 miles) almost all the year round, and for 20-ton boats to Etumbi (75 miles farther) from the end of September to the end of June. Its tributary, the Kuyu, is navigable for small steamers from the end of September to the end of April, as far as Fort Russet (50 miles). The Alima is permanently navigable for 20-ton steamers to Leketi (215 miles).

iv. *The Upper Ubanghi and its Tributaries.*—At Bangi and again 25 miles farther north navigation is interrupted by rapids. From Mossamba opposite Mokwange, at the upper end of the higher rapids, to Mobaye (about 200 miles) a small steamer belonging to the Compagnie de Navigation et Transports Congo-Oubangui plies between the end of June and the end of December. The Ubanghi and Mbomu (M'Bomou) are navigable for canoes and whale-boats all the year round from the rapids of Mobaye to the falls of Guturu (about 125 miles), though there are three portages. During certain seasons the Mbomu is again navigable as far as the influx above the falls of the Mboku (M'Bokou, 200 miles).

The Kotto (Kotta, Kuta), which joins the Ubanghi just below the confluence of the Welle and the Mbomu, and the Shinko (Chinko), the chief tributary of the latter river, also possess long reaches navigable for canoes, at any rate in the rainy season. The whole system is valuable as a means of access to the Sultanates.

The route to Lake Chad ascends the Kemo, which joins the Ubanghi at Fort de Possel, and its tributary the Tomi to Fort Sibut (80 miles). The rivers are

navigable for canoes or whale-boats during 8 or 10 months in the year.

Chad System.

Between Lake Chad and the Congo traffic passes along the rivers Shari and Gribingi. Two small screw steamers of 14 tons each, both over 20 years old, ply on the Shari between Fort Lamy and Fort Archambault from August to December, taking 8 days ascending and 4 returning. From Fort Archambault to Fort Crampel on the Gribingi, to which there is a road from Fort Sibut, the journey takes 15 days in canoes; it is possible for steamers, but is difficult, dangerous, and seldom attempted. During 8 months in the year steamers are able to navigate the lower Shari and Lake Chad itself to Bol, which is used as a port for Kanem.

The steamers were originally taken up to Lake Chad by the Government, but have now been sold to the *Compagnie de l'Ouhamé-Nana*, which also possesses barges and whale-boats for the transport services of these regions.

Of the tributaries of the Shari, the Sara and its affluent the Fafa are navigable for whale-boats from mid-August to the end of November as far as Batangafo; the Logone as far as Gore, and the Bahr Salamat for some distance. Attempts have been made to utilize the Logone as a secondary line of communication with Lake Chad. In the rainy season steamers can ascend by the Niger, Benue, and Mayo-Kebi as far as Bipare, and flat-bottomed boats reach Lere. At the same time, the Chad steamers can ascend the Logone to Ham, whence a canal for whale-boats has been cut to Pogo. But the agreement of 1911 made the Logone a frontier river and placed a large part of the route in German territory, and owing to the consequent lack of facilities it was abandoned by the French.

Projected Improvements.—Certain improvements of river transport are provided for by the loan of 1914:

(a) In Gabun the channels between the Fernan

Vaz lagoon and Port Gentil are to be improved so as to ensure perennial communication by two routes. Landing stages and cranes are to be installed at Njole.

(b) On the Congo, quays 330 ft. long are to be built at Brazzaville, and the French channel across Stanley Pool is to be buoyed. The Congo is to be buoyed and lighted as far as the Lefini so as to be navigable for steamers of 1,000 tons both night and day. The rapids of Zinga are to be buoyed and the reefs blasted so as to ensure that Bangi will always be accessible for steamers drawing 5 ft. of water. The total cost of all these works was estimated at rather more than £200,000.

(c) *Railways*

The only railway in the country is the narrow-gauge Decauville line between Brazzaville and Minduli (about 100 miles), built and worked by the Compagnie Minière du Congo Français for the transport of copper ore. It is not open to the public either for passengers or goods. The company intends to continue the line to Chikumba (Tchikoumba), 15 miles farther west. The Société des Mines de Djoué (Jue) had projected a similar line from Brazzaville to Renéville (59 miles).

The following railways were projected, the cost of construction to be covered by the loan of £6,840,000 authorized in 1914 :

- i. Pointe Noire to Brazzaville (1 metre gauge, 360 miles). It was estimated that the cost would be £3,800,000 and that construction would take 8 years.
- ii. Bangi to Fort Crampel *via* Fort Sibut (60 cm. gauge, 217 miles). The estimated cost was £600,000.
- iii. Njole to Makoku (1 metre gauge, 195 miles). The estimated cost was £1,774,000, and the time required for building was stated to be 8 years. This line was ultimately to form part of a line from Ovendo to Wesso, 625 miles long, the estimated cost of which was over £4,500,000.

These plans have been somewhat modified by the war, none of the money required having been raised before war broke out. The Njole-Makoku line has been abandoned for the present, since the late war removed its chief *raison d'être*. It had been intended that it should run parallel with the frontier of Cameroon, and that by the diversion of the trade of the district a revenge should be taken in the economic sphere for the political defeat which France suffered in 1911. If the project is revived it is clearly possible that a route more advantageous commercially may be found for the line. In a speech of December 28, 1917, M. Augoulvant stated that he hoped to raise £880,000 as a first instalment of the loan, and to start work on the Pointe Noire-Brazzaville line.

(d) *Posts, Telegraphs, and Telephones*

Letters are carried in the interior of the colony by monthly or bi-monthly messengers. There are 23 offices from which parcels may be sent, all of them in Gabun, except those at Brazzaville and Bangi.

The following telegraph lines exist :

	<i>Miles.</i>
1. Libreville to Massabè <i>via</i> Loango	578
2. Libreville to Njole	132
3. Loango to Brazzaville	307
4. Mbamu (on Stanley Pool) to Pangala	84
5. Liranga to Bangi	419
6. Bangi to Fort Lamy	850
Total	2,370

Brazzaville is in communication with Léopoldville by optical telegraph ; and from Léopoldville messages for Bangi and the Chad region are sent over the Belgian wire as far as Gombe, whence they are delivered by boat at Liranga. There is a submarine cable, 624 miles in length, along the coast connecting Libreville, Port Gentil, Loango, and Pointe Noire. Abeshr (Abécher) is in communication by optical telegraph with Tumtuma (85 miles).

There are powerful high-frequency wireless stations at Pointe Noire and Brazzaville, which are in communication with each other. Less powerful stations, with a range of 100–150 miles, exist in the Chad regions at Fort Lamy, Ngigmi (N'Guigmi, the terminus of the French West African line), Mao, Mussoro, Ati, Faya, Goz Beïda, and Abeshr. The system covers about 880 miles.

There are local telephone systems at Libreville, Port Gentil, and Brazzaville.

(2) EXTERNAL

(a) Ports

The chief ports are Libreville on the Gabun estuary and Port Gentil at the mouth of the Ogowe.

Libreville possesses one of the finest natural harbours on the west coast of Africa, but since the rivers of the Gabun estuary are short, it has no means of tapping the riches of the interior, and consequently its trade is declining. The French look upon it at present merely as the port of the local back-country. Of the 1909 loan they spent on it only £10,000, and on the construction of the slipway, lighthouse, &c., provided for by the 1913 loan, they propose to spend only £25,000. The population of the town numbers 2,000–3,000 and includes about 200 Europeans.

Port Gentil has the bulk of the timber trade, the logs being floated down the Ogowe, and will ultimately serve, it is hoped, as an outlet for the resources of the lagoon district along the coast. Sums of £19,000 from the 1909 loan and £28,000 from the 1913 loan were allotted to Port Gentil, for the construction of wharves and a slipway for ships of 500 tons, and for the provision of buoys and lighting.

Loango is an open roadstead, important in the past as the starting-point of the caravan route for Brazzaville. Since the construction of the Congo Railway, the significance of its position has practically disap-

peared. The bar, which makes access to all the ports difficult, is particularly dangerous here.

The relative importance of Libreville, Port Gentil, and Loango is fairly represented by the takings at their custom offices. These include export as well as import duties, and in 1916 were as follows :

	<i>Francs.</i>
Libreville	268,000
Port Gentil	459,000
Loango	73,800

Sette Cama and *Mayumba* are minor ports. It is proposed to build lighthouses at both and at three other places along the coast, the estimated cost being £8,000.

Under existing conditions the colonies which together constitute French Equatorial Africa communicate with the sea *via* Brazzaville and Matadi. In the future, however, they will find their outlet through Gabun, when the projected railway is constructed between Brazzaville and Pointe Noire. Elaborate plans have been made for transforming the open roadstead of Pointe Noire into a first-class port. The ultimate cost is estimated at £1,780,000, but £155,000 would suffice meanwhile to provide two lighthouses, docks and accessories, and, in a sheltered part of the roadstead, a wharf 22 metres wide and 200 metres long, accessible to tugs and lighters drawing 10 ft. of water.

(b) *Shipping Lines*

In 1913 the Gabun ports were used by 193 vessels, of 437,855 tons ; in 1916 they were visited by 28 vessels only, and of these 11 were French mail-boats. Mails are carried by the Chargeurs Réunis, a subsidized French company which before the war ran a mail and passenger service every month from Havre and Bordeaux to various West African ports between Dakar and Matadi, including Libreville and Port Gentil, and also a monthly cargo service from Dunkirk, Havre, and Bordeaux. There is no other regular French line, and

French writers complain of the suppression by the Compagnie Fraissinet of the direct service to Marseilles which existed until 1909. Before the war the Compagnie Belge Maritime du Congo ran a regular passenger service every three weeks between Antwerp and Matadi, calling at La Rochelle, but not at any of the Gabun ports, while Elder, Dempster & Co. and the Woermann Linie ran regular monthly services from Liverpool and Hamburg respectively to the Gabun ports. More than half the total merchant shipping was German.

The French, Belgian, and English lines continued to run during the war, but at irregular intervals, and the shortage of transport has had a serious effect on the economic position of the colony.

(c) Cable and Wireless Communication

The submarine cable from Libreville *via* Port Gentil and Loango to Pointe Noire forms a part of the French West African cable system starting from Kotonu in Dahomey; thus communication is ensured with Europe either by the St. Vincent-Eastern or the Dakar-Brest route. There is a short telegraph line between Ntum (N'Toum), an office on the Libreville-Njole line, and Ekododo in Spanish Guinea. The wireless station at Brazzaville communicates with Lissala, Stanleyville, and Kindu in the Belgian Congo.

(B) INDUSTRY

(1) LABOUR

(a) Supply of Labour

Since agriculture and industry are still on a small scale, workmen are needed chiefly for two purposes: first, as porters or boatmen to take supplies up-country; second, for Government undertakings, such as the construction of roads, paths, and telegraphs. They are also required, to a smaller extent, for wood-felling and the gathering of rubber. Even for these requirements the supply of labour is inadequate. The

population is scanty ; sleeping-sickness has wrought much havoc of recent years, and north of 7° north latitude great tracts of country have been depopulated by the slave-raids from Wadai and Bagirmi. Further, the negro is an unwilling worker, having indeed little stimulus to work except when he wants to buy a wife. He is not always trustworthy, while as a rubber-gatherer and a wood-cutter he is wasteful and destructive. It is, therefore, not remarkable that the tribes which afford the best labour are finding the burden laid on them almost heavier than they can bear. Some are dying out, and the survivors take refuge in the forest when any exceptional demands are likely to be made upon them.

Improvements, however, are undoubtedly being effected. The slave-trade has been suppressed, and sleeping-sickness is being fought and shows signs of diminishing. Further, with the improvement of communications that should follow when the railway loan is made available, the need for porters should be greatly reduced. Thus the projected railway from Bangi or Fort Sibut to Fort Crampel will release a considerable force of labour from an exceptionally arduous and detrimental portage. Something is also being done for the education of the natives, both by the Government and by missionaries.¹ A few of the concessionaire companies, moreover, have endeavoured to teach them better methods of gathering rubber, and it is unfortunate that the most active of these, the *Compagnie Forestière Sangha-Oubangui*, had most of its holdings within the territory which was ceded to Germany in 1911. At present, skilled labour has to be imported from Accra or from Senegal, where the native labourers were recruited who built the Belgian railway from Matadi to Stanley Pool.

(b) *Labour Conditions*

Contracts with natives are regulated by a decree of April 7, 1911, which protects their freedom of con-

¹ See p. 31.

tract, and provides that their engagement is to last not less than three months, that they shall be paid in cash, shall be given medical attendance, shall not be required to work more than ten hours a day, and shall be given one day's rest in the week.

There is no obligation upon the natives to work for a private European employer, but they are compelled, when within the radius of effective Government administration, to do some work for the State. This enforced labour is based on the theory that the State, in return for the benefits which it confers, is entitled to levy a tax, and that the native must pay in work if not in money.

Where the natives are not under direct European control most of the work is done by women and slaves.

(2) AGRICULTURE

(a) *Products of Commercial Value*

i. *Vegetable Products.*—There are few plantations managed by Europeans, except in the Gabun colony, where cocoa, coffee, and vanilla are grown; and all told, the plantations are said to cover no more than 111,200 acres, of which only 3,200 are reported to be under cultivation. The climate and soil of the colony are said to be as favourable for the production of cocoa as are those of San Thomé, yet its cultivation has made very slow progress, and in 1912 there were only about fifty plantations, with 1,178,000 trees. Some progress has been made during the war, the cessation in the export of wood having made it easier to get labour, but no great advance is likely until the natives learn to plant on their own account, as the natives of the Gold Coast do. Coffee-planting also makes little, if any, progress, as the profits to be obtained are small. The amount of vanilla grown is insignificant.

North of 7° north latitude, millet is the staple crop of the natives; it is used to make a fermented drink as well as for food. Peas, beans, sesame, the castor-oil

plant, and a little corn are also grown in these regions. Cotton is extensively cultivated in Bagirmi, Tubowa, and Wadai ; in 1910-11 attempts were made to grow it farther south, but with little success. Rice grows wild in western Kanem.

South of 7° north latitude, manioc and bananas are grown almost everywhere, and maize is cultivated by certain tribes. Oil-palms, ground-nuts, and tobacco are produced especially by the Bateke in Middle Congo. Pepper and sweet-potatoes are cultivated by the natives, but as a rule only in sufficient quantities for their own consumption.

Among forest products are palm-nuts and palm kernels, which are abundant but little exploited, piassava of inferior quality, copal, kola-nuts, and mangoes. There is no export of any of these save from Gabun, the difficulty of transport from Middle Congo being at present insuperable. There are vast fields of papyrus in the delta of the Ogowe ; coffee and cotton grow wild in Middle Congo and Ubanghi-Shari, while in the north the date-palm abounds in Wadai, Kanem, and Borku.

ii. *Live-stock*.—The most important wild animals from the point of view of commerce are the elephants, which are still numerous throughout the great equatorial forest. No attempts have yet been made to domesticate them, and unless this is done the herds will almost certainly be killed off by the natives as the population increases under the security of French rule. Wild ostriches are found on the edge of the Sahara zone, and a census of domestic animals in 1911 showed a total of nearly 1,500 tame birds, of which 200 were on an experimental ostrich farm kept by Captain Devedeix at Aburai in Bagirmi, and given up in 1914. The trade in ostrich feathers between Abeshr and Bagirmi has been interrupted in recent years owing to the insecurity of the caravan routes across the desert.

Of domestic animals there are very few south of 7° north latitude, except goats, dogs, hens, and ducks. Stock-raising on a large scale is not possible south of

9° north latitude, owing to the tsetse fly. Live cattle are, however, exported for slaughtering to Bangi and the region of the upper Shari, and attempts have been made to keep cattle near the European settlements.

A census made in 1911 of the domestic animals in the Chad regions gave the following figures, which are certainly below the correct numbers :

Cattle	394,807
Horses	19,326
Sheep and goats	981,580
Camels	18,837
Donkeys	9,109
Ostriches	1,482

The total was therefore 1,425,141 head, valued at £1,500,000 to £1,600,000.

The cattle are of several varieties, both with and without humps ; the horses are either imported Arabs and Syrians, or belong to the small indigenous Logone breed ; the sheep are bred for food, no use being made of the wool ; the native donkeys are small, and worth only a fraction of the sums paid for the large Egyptian donkeys, some of which have been imported into Wadai. In general the animals are of poor quality, and little has yet been done to improve them, though a beginning has been made by the appointment of three veterinary surgeons.

Bees are kept by the natives of Bagirmi, the annual production of honey being estimated in 1911 at 52,000 litres.

(b) Methods of Cultivation

Methods of cultivation are everywhere primitive ; the ground is never manured, and the hoe is used instead of the plough, even in the north. The manioc, grown everywhere south of 7° north latitude, exhausts the soil very quickly, and the clearings round the villages have to be constantly extended. This in itself is no inconsiderable labour, the axes used by the natives being small and weak.

Irrigation is unknown.

(c) *Forestry*

Of forests there are 301,000 square kilometres (116,200 square miles), and their products, chiefly wood and rubber, constitute by far the greatest riches of the country.

Timber.—A considerable export trade in timber from the Gabun ports had been developed before the war, but there are difficulties to be overcome before the forests can be thoroughly exploited. First, there is the question of transport. The more valuable woods, such as ebony and mahogany, are too heavy to be floated down the rivers or across the lagoons, and consequently have to be cut up into logs, and European buyers, finding these logs inconveniently small, prefer wood from Madagascar or Brazil. Hence nearly all the wood exported is *okume*, a kind of light mahogany which will float; it is used in the manufacture of cheap furniture and cigar-boxes. Further, even when the wood has reached the sea, it is often difficult to get it shipped, owing to the existence of a bar along the whole coast from Mayumba to Cape Lopez. These obstacles can be overcome only by the construction of a system of canals and short railways, which would enable large logs of seven or eight tons to be taken to Port Gentil for shipment. A second difficulty arises from the character of the forest itself. Unlike European forests, which are composed generally of trees of a single variety, African forests contain many different species growing side by side. Hence if only one or two kinds are being sought for, as is usually the case, great tracts of country have to be traversed and probably many trees uselessly cut down.

Besides *okume*, ebony, and mahogany, walnut and the wood of the tulip and silk-cotton trees are exported.

Rubber is gathered everywhere from Gabun to Bagirmi, but it may be doubted whether the future of this industry is likely to be prosperous, in spite of a temporary expansion due to the war, for, on the one hand, the vines in the more accessible districts

have been recklessly destroyed, and, on the other, the price of rubber has fallen heavily; further, the competition of the plantations is increasing. There is little prospect at present, however, of the cultivation of rubber on any considerable scale, for though the concessionaire companies are under an obligation to plant trees in proportion to the amount of rubber they gather, most of them carry out this duty in a perfunctory manner, and take no pains to ensure the success of their plantations, which are wholly lacking in vitality.

(d) *Land Tenure*

The native system of land tenure is imperfectly understood; land appears to belong either to the chiefs, or to private individuals, or to the community. The last is by far the most common usage, and it is of some importance to note that, not only is the cultivated land surrounding a village considered to belong to the community, but also the neighbouring forest. This is partly because new land is required for cultivation every year, and partly also because the natives obtain fruit and wood from the forest. These rights are recognized by the French Government, and the uncultivated land, whether pasturage or forest, surrounding a village is included in the native reserves, over which the rights of the concessionaire companies do not extend.

(3) FISHERIES

Throughout the colony the rivers and lakes abound in fish. The natives catch them for food, and in certain districts also carry on a small trade in dried fish. Freshwater oysters are found in places and their shells are used for making a hard lime, employed in building the foundations of houses for Europeans.

In 1912 and 1913 whale-fishing was successfully conducted off the Gabun coast by a Norwegian company, which built a factory for extracting the whale oil and making guano. The outbreak of war put a stop to the industry.

(4) MINERALS

The only mineral of much commercial importance is the copper found south of the Niari, or upper Kwilu, and on the right bank of the Jue (Djoué), between Brazzaville and the sea. The former deposit is exploited by the *Compagnie Minière du Congo Français*, founded in 1905, with a capital of £260,000, which has constructed a Decauville railway to Brazzaville for the transport of the ore. This is the only mining company in the country which is actually working, the *Société des Mines du Djoué* having abandoned operations in 1913. Zinc, lead, and iron are found in the same regions, and in the neighbourhood of Boko Songo, farther south. Iron is said to be abundant in the Sultanates; natron is found in the pools north of Lake Chad; salt in Bilma and Dar Waia and to the north of Ennedi; tin has recently been discovered in the valley of the Konanzo near Bambari and in the region of Mayo-Kebi, which was ceded to Germany in 1911. No mineral except copper is worked by Europeans, though the French profess considerable confidence in the mineral possibilities of the country.

(5) MANUFACTURES

Manufactures, whether native or European, are unimportant. The natives do some metal work in the regions where minerals are found, but the tendency is for the industry to disappear when faced by the competition of European manufactures. Home industries such as weaving, leather working, pottery, and the manufacture of fishing nets are also carried on. European enterprises are limited to a few small bakeries, distilleries, and ice factories, two saw-mills, two brick-fields, factories for the extraction of palm and whale oil, establishments for the repair of river boats, and others of minor importance.

(6) POWER

There are at present no hydro-electric installations, but the numerous falls and rapids, particularly of the Gabun rivers, afford opportunities for their establishment.

(C) COMMERCE

(1) DOMESTIC

(a) *Towns*

The capital of French Equatorial Africa is *Brazzaville* on Stanley Pool. In 1912 it had a population of 4,886, including 409 Europeans. It is the great river port of the colony, and before the war had an annual shipping movement of 14,000 tons. The town itself owes much to M. Merlin, the late Governor-General, and to Mgr. Augouard ; it contains a cathedral and the brick-built offices or warehouses of the chief trading companies.

Bangi is the European commercial centre next in importance, and has 102 white inhabitants.

Fort Lamy, whose population in 1911 numbered 60 Europeans and 3,138 natives, is the administrative capital of the Chad territory. It is favourably placed from the point of view both of land and river communications, and has made considerable progress since its foundation by M. Gentil in 1900.

Abeshr, capital of Wadai, is the chief native town of the colony, and had in 1911 a population of 28,000, living in houses built of dried clay with straw-thatched roofs. It seems destined to increase in importance. To the north it is in communication by caravan with Kufra and Ben Ghasi (1,250 miles), and to the west with El Fasher and El Obeid (625 miles) along the great pilgrim route from West Africa to Mecca, while it is about the same distance in a straight line from Fort Sibut on the Tomi and Garua on the Benue, the terminal points of river transport towards Lake Chad by the Congo and Niger routes respectively.

The only other native towns of any importance are *Massenya*, capital of Bagirmi, and *Goz Beïda* in Wadai.

(b) French and Foreign Interests

An important part in the development of the country has been taken by the concessionaire companies. There are, further, to be considered the operations of private firms and companies without concessions, and of the transport companies.

The Concessionaire Companies.—Since the reorganizations of 1910 there remain only 13 concessionaire companies of the 40 previously in existence. In that year many of the original companies surrendered their right of exploiting large tracts of territory in exchange either for the full ownership of much smaller districts or for the right of collecting rubber on less onerous terms, but only until 1920; of the rest some have gone into liquidation, and others have amalgamated with one or other of the remaining companies. Some of the latter, notably the Société des Sultanats du Haut-Oubangui, the Société 'la Kotto', and the Société Française de l'Ouhamé-Nana, are also anxious to have their contracts revised.

The total capital of the 13 companies is £1,660,000; their profits for the year 1913, reckoned on the basis of the 15 per cent. paid by them to the State, were about £106,000. In their hands is, roughly speaking, about one-half of the total foreign trade of the colony, a large part of the remainder being composed of imports and exports for the Government. In no case does a concessionaire company possess mining rights.

Companies without Concessions, and Private Firms.—In 1912 there were 13 such companies and 69 private firms trading in the colony. One of the most important of the former is the Compagnie Afrique et Congo, which carries on trading and building operations. It has a capital of £200,000, on which in 1913 a profit of nearly £20,000 was made, and in 1916 over £11,000. The most important of the private firms are English.

The usual methods of trading are either to send native employees into the interior with goods to exchange,

or to deliver goods to native chiefs on credit and trust them to bring back rubber or ivory in return. The latter is the method more commonly adopted, but it is not very satisfactory, as the chiefs sometimes fail to come back at all.

The *Transport Companies* owe their present constitution to the agreements between the French Government and the original concessionaire companies, by which the latter undertook to provide transport on the navigable rivers within their concessions. Finding these obligations inconvenient, the greater number of them combined to form transport companies, of which the most important is the *Messageries Fluviales*, with a capital of £120,000. This company is responsible for transport on the Congo and its tributaries between Brazzaville and Bangi, and earned a profit of £20,000 in 1913. The *Société Gabonaise d'Entreprises et de Transport*, with a capital of £28,000, has five steamers on the Gabun rivers.

The most important private firms in the colony are the old-established Liverpool houses of John Holt & Co., Hatton & Cookson, and W. D. Woodin & Co., who have in all thirty-seven agencies or branches in the Gabun territory. They are not active in other parts of the colony, though Hatton & Cookson have a banking establishment at Brazzaville. Being private firms, they issue no public statements of accounts.

The German firm Woermann & Gebauer had agencies in Gabun before the war. The whale fishery was carried on by Norwegians. Italy is interested in the trans-Sahara trade between Ben Ghasi and Abeshir, and between Tripoli and Zinder. Greek and Arab merchants reside in the Chad territory and the Sultanates.

A considerable traffic is carried on with the neighbouring protectorates—the Belgian Congo, the Cameroons, and the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan.

(2) FOREIGN

The progress of the foreign trade of the colonies of Gabun and Middle Congo (including Ubanghi-Shari and the Chad territory) is shown by the following figures relating to the six years 1911-16 :

	<i>Gabun.</i> <i>Francs.</i>	<i>Middle Congo.</i> <i>Francs.</i>
1911 . . .	14,081,316	32,958,155
1912 . . .	16,848,637	32,074,036
1913 . . .	24,339,029	33,507,776
1914 . . .	15,616,185	12,331,028
1915 . . .	5,734,957	16,505,650
1916 . . .	8,456,090	23,239,412

(a) Exports

Quantities and Values.—The following table shows the total values of exports for the years 1913 and 1916 :

		<i>Gabun.</i> <i>Francs.</i>	<i>Middle Congo.</i> <i>Francs.</i>	<i>Total.</i> <i>Francs.</i>
Products of the colony . . .	1913	15,654,087	17,909,228	33,563,315
	1916	3,541,438	15,461,801	19,003,239
Transit and entrepôt trade . . .	1913	72,274	3,029,448	3,101,722
	1916	123,668	746,075	869,743
Total . . .	1913	15,726,361	20,938,676	36,665,037
	1916	3,665,106	16,207,876	19,872,982

The values of the chief articles exported in 1913 were as follows :

	<i>Gabun.</i> <i>Francs.</i>	<i>Middle Congo.</i> <i>Francs.</i>
<i>Animal products.</i>		
Ivory . . .	126,055	3,221,194
Whale oil . . .	5,176,350	—
Others . . .	37,027	83,639
<i>Vegetable products.</i>		
Cocoa beans . . .	173,853	—
Coffee beans . . .	30,255	1,997
Copal . . .	1,730	5,168
Palm-nuts . . .	186,920	6
Palm oil . . .	65,255	11,709
Piassava . . .	22,662	—
Rubber . . .	1,480,414	16,150,977
Wood . . .	8,319,239	1,950
Others . . .	51,658	107,630
<i>Minerals.</i>		
Bricks . . .	—	12,544
Copper . . .	352	590,046
Others . . .	352	66,030
<i>Manufactured goods.</i>		
Metal goods . . .	31,522	128,759
Textiles . . .	14,350	331,995
Others . . .	8,367	225,032
Total . . .	15,726,361	20,938,676

se figures do not give a complete statement of reign trade of the colonies, as they refer only to goods exported and imported by the Gabun ports, Libreville, and Banga-Baha. They omit, therefore,

the whole of the overland trade with the Congo, Cameroon, the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan, Darfur, and Kordofan. It has been estimated that the true figures are between four and five millions francs of those given.

tries of Destination.—The following table shows the destinations of the exports of Gabun and Middle Congo for the years 1913 and 1916:

	<i>Gabun.</i>		<i>Middle Congo.</i>	
	1913. <i>Francs.</i>	1916. <i>Francs.</i>	1913. <i>Francs.</i>	1916. <i>Francs.</i>
French colonies . . .	2,799,763	2,168,820	11,606,814	10,236,262
England . . .	541	2,943	—	11,265
Germany . . .	3,961,601	1,493,343	12,521	4,061,779
Belgium . . .	3,628,602		1,848,677	—
Norway . . .	—		6,332,583	—
Holland . . .	4,030,323		—	—
United States . . .	1,242,035		—	—
Belgian Congo . . .	16,800		—	—
Other countries . . .	—		784,498	1,884,391
	46,696		353,583	14,179
Total . . .	15,726,361	3,665,106	20,938,676	16,207,876

The exports from Gabun in 1916, other than those to France and the French colonies, went almost entirely to England. The following were the chief products of the colony exported to England:

	<i>Metric tons.</i>
Palm-nuts	1,302
Palm oil	144
Piassava	293
Rubber	42
Woods	2,014

No recent figures are available for the overland trade of the colony. In 1911 the exports from the Chad territory were valued at 640,871 francs and consisted almost entirely of cattle. It is probable that the greater portion of the goods went to other parts of the colony.

countries of origin of the imports into Gabun and Middle Congo in the years 1913 and 1916 :

	<i>Gabun.</i>		<i>Middle Congo.</i>	
	1913. <i>Francs.</i>	1916. <i>Francs.</i>	1913. <i>Francs.</i>	1916. <i>Francs.</i>
France	4,629,138	2,758,693	4,108,329	3,905,540
French colonies	66,415	198,202	11,903	6,501
French bonded warehouses	434,162	—	—	—
England	2,443,356	1,324,939	1,727,633	1,008,282
Germany	828,719	—	1,009,251	—
Belgium	33,112	—	2,577,602	—
Holland	12,900	—	282,880	56,564
United States	99,744	197,124	—	—
Belgian Congo	—	25,730	1,015,349	1,868,068
Other countries	65,122	286,296	1,836,153	186,581
Total	8,612,668	4,790,984	12,569,100	7,031,536

(c) Customs and Tariffs

There are three different tariff systems :

(i) In the part of Gabun which lies north of 2° 30' south latitude the tariff is protective, and based on the French tariff ; it gives free entry to French goods, while other goods with a few exceptions pay the duties that they would pay on entry into France.

(ii) In the conventional basin of the Congo, which includes the territory lying south of 2° 30' south latitude, the tariff is levied for revenue purposes only. All imports, whatever their origin, are divided into three categories. The first, including coal, oil, petrol, and machinery, pays a duty of 3 per cent. *ad valorem* ; the second, including living animals, cereals, and building materials, pays 5 per cent. *ad valorem*, while all other goods pay 10 per cent. *ad valorem*.

Both in Gabun and in the Congo basin, spirits pay an import duty of 200 fr. per litre of pure alcohol, while export duties are charged on ivory and rubber (10 per cent.), whale-oil (3 per cent.), woods (1½ to 2 per cent.), and whalebone (5 per cent.).

(iii) In the basin of the Shari, it was agreed by the Franco-German Convention of March 15, 1894, that German goods should enter on the same footing as French, and the Franco-British Declaration of March 21, 1899, granted the same privileges for a period of thirty

years to British goods entering the territory between 14° 20' and 5° north latitude. In these two districts, a decree of April 25, 1902, fixed nominal import duties of 6 per cent. and 10 per cent., and export duties of 5 per cent. and 10 per cent., for certain articles. As there are no custom-houses, however, imports and exports are in practice free.

(D) FINANCE

(1) *Public Finance*

There are five annual budgets, a General Budget for the colony as a whole and Local Budgets for its four divisions.¹ In 1913 they balanced at the following figures :

	£
General Budget	256,000
Special Budgets :	
Gabun	84,400
Middle Congo	94,300
Ubanghi-Shari	68,600
Chad	40,000
Total	543,300

The principal items of the General Budget were as follows :

<i>Revenue.</i>	£	<i>Expenditure.</i>	£
Import duties	60,000	Subventions to the local budgets and institutions	90,000
Export duties	52,000	Salaries	58,000
Excise duties	32,000	Service of the loan	37,280
Navigation duties, &c.	2,700	Public Works	27,800
Tax on Concessionaire Companies	11,000	Material	15,200
Share in profits of Concessionaire Companies	16,000	Transport of personnel	10,000
Duty on ivory and rubber from lands not held by Concessionaire Companies	10,000		
Mining and other proprietary rights	3,000		
Receipts from printing	1,600		
Receipts from posts and telegraphs	5,600		
Subvention from State	24,000		
Advance for loan service	37,280		

¹ Although Ubanghi-Shari and Chad were amalgamated in 1910, they continued to produce separate budgets.

The principal items of the Local Budgets were as follows :

<i>Revenue.</i>				
	<i>Gabun.</i>	<i>Middle Congo.</i>	<i>Ubanghi-Shari.</i>	<i>Chad.</i>
	£	£	£	£
Subvention	47,000	28,000	12,000	nil
Poll-tax	27,200	52,000	44,000	32,720
Licences	4,000	4,000	2,280	4,280
Taken from reserve funds .	nil	8,160	4,000	nil
<i>Expenditure.</i>				
	£	£	£	£
Salaries	59,520	58,600	43,800	28,840
Transport	6,800	10,320	8,280	3,560
Material	12,840	18,200	11,130	2,760

Of the four colonies, the Chad territory is in the most favourable financial position. Not only does it require no subvention from the General Budget, but it makes an annual contribution, which in 1913 amounted to £3,000, to the budget of Ubanghi-Shari.

The Home Government, in addition to its contributions to the General Budget, bears all the military expenditure, which in 1912 amounted to over £330,000.

The native poll-tax is 5 fr. per head per annum, usually paid in rubber, except in the Chad territory, where payment has to be made in French money. The tax has been increased in Gabun, first to 7 fr. 50 c. and again in 1915 to 10 fr.

Licences are required for carrying on almost every kind of trade or business ; the revenue included under this head in the Chad Budget consisted chiefly of dues paid by travelling merchants.

The estimates for 1917 were as follows :

	£
General Budget	147,000
Loan Service	50,000
Gabun	84,000
Middle Congo	72,000
Ubanghi-Shari	80,000
Chad	77,000

(2) *Currency*

The official coinage is that of France, but it is hardly current except in the European settlements. Trading

with the natives is carried on by means of barter, cloth being given to them in exchange for ivory and rubber. Among themselves, the natives use native money, consisting chiefly of wire or small metal objects. In the Chad territory and the Sultanates the Maria Theresa dollar is in common use, and its value was fixed at 3 francs by a decree of January 31, 1903. The French Government is anxious to secure a more general adoption of its own currency, and with that object decreed in 1911 that native labourers should be paid in cash by their private employers, and in 1916 that the poll-tax in the Chad territory should be paid in French money.

(3) *Banking*

The Banque de l'Afrique Occidentale has the right to carry on business in Gabun, where it is represented by the Société du Haut-Ogooué, and Messrs. Hatton & Cookson have a banking establishment at Brazzaville, but the only bank of real importance in the colony is the Banque de l'Afrique Équatoriale Française. This was founded in 1904 and has now a capital of £200,000 (£125,650 paid). Its head office is in Paris, and the local branches are at Brazzaville, Port Gentil, and Bangi. The bank has no State privileges and does not issue notes, but is a sound and fairly prosperous concern, the directorate being composed of men of wealth and good standing. The profits in 1913, when trade suffered from the slump in rubber, amounted to over £17,000, and were about £13,000 in each of the two following years; later figures are not available, but it is believed that conditions are satisfactory.

(E) GENERAL REMARKS

French writers have often called Equatorial Africa the Cinderella of their colonial empire, and its development has certainly failed to keep pace with that of its neighbours. The causes are varied, but some of the more important are not difficult to distinguish.

In the first place, the country itself has been less favoured by nature than certain other West African colonies. It has neither so complete a system of waterways nor so dense a population as the Belgian Congo, and its inhabitants are on the whole far lower in the scale of civilization, less industrious, and less intelligent, than the natives of Senegal and the Gold Coast. Further, its only natural harbour is remote from the great rivers which give access to the interior.

In the second place, very little attempt has been made by the French to develop the colony. Whereas Cochin China has been lent more than £21,000,000, French West Africa more than £7,000,000, and even Madagascar more than £4,000,000, Equatorial Africa has received only about £920,000. Consequently the means of communication remain defective: the ports are neglected, few roads and no railways have been built, and little or nothing has been done to improve the navigation of the rivers. Fiscal policy has also had its share in retarding progress. The division of the coast into two tariff districts is unfortunate; and the French might have been well advised to add their Gabun territory to the conventional basin of the Congo, and abandon the system of protective tariffs. Moreover, the attitude adopted towards foreign traders has hindered development, the authorities seeming to prefer that the country should remain undeveloped rather than that it should owe its progress to any but Frenchmen.

In respect of its policy of developing the country by means of concessionaire colonies, the administration has been strongly criticized. It must be admitted, however, that there is something to be said on the other side. Not only have the original mistakes, due to an excessive reliance on that policy, been to a large extent rectified (see p. 25), but there are certain very tangible gains resulting from it which are not to be disregarded. It is only fair to remember that between 1899, the year in which the concessionaire regime was inaugurated,

and 1912, the annual value of the commerce of the colony rose from about £540,000 to about £1,720,000; that the companies brought into the country a considerable amount of capital (nearly £2,400,000) which but for them would probably not have been forthcoming until much later; and that a large proportion of the colony's revenue has been derived from taxes paid by them. It is uncertain whether any other system would have had equally favourable results.

The main problems by which the colony is faced at present are three in number, viz. defective transport, scarcity of labour, and the fall in value of the staple products, ivory, rubber, and wood. The first of these will be dealt with satisfactorily as soon as it is possible to raise and apply the loan of £6,840,000 authorized in 1914. This should also help to solve the labour problem, for the provision of transport facilities will make it possible to reduce the heavy demands made on the natives for portage. It may be hoped, further, that science will be able to check the spread of sleeping-sickness, and that the native population will increase as the area of effective French rule is extended and public safety is more effectively secured. It seems unfortunately certain that the production of ivory will diminish in importance, and that it will become more and more difficult for wild rubber to compete with the plantation product, but there is every reason to expect that compensation for these losses will be found in the development of the exports of cocoa, palm-nuts, and palm oil. The supply of wood is practically inexhaustible, but there is some danger of a heavy fall in the demand, unless the German market can be replaced. This possibility, however, has been recognized, and a scheme for organizing the industry is under consideration. It is probable that the mother country, which before the war imported foreign woods to an annual value of no less than £10,000,000, will be able to take the greater part of the export.

APPENDIX

EXTRACTS FROM TREATIES, ETC.

I

CONVENTION BETWEEN FRANCE AND PORTUGAL, MAY 12, 1886

Art. III.—In the region of the Congo, the frontier of the Portuguese and French possessions will follow, in accordance with the tracing on Map II, annexed to the present Convention, a line which, starting from the Chamba Point, situated at the confluence of the Loema or Louisa Loango and the Lubinda, will keep, as far as the nature of the land permits, at an equal distance from the two rivers, and from the northernmost source of the River Luali will follow the crest line which separates the basins of the Loema or Louisa Loango and the Chiloango as far as $10^{\circ} 30'$ of longitude east of Paris, when it is merged in this meridian as far as its meeting with the Chiloango, which at this point serves as the frontier between the Portuguese possessions and the Congo Free State.

Each of the High Contracting Parties binds itself not to raise at Chamba Point any works of a nature to impede navigation. In the estuary comprised between Chamba Point and the sea the thalweg will serve as political line of demarcation between the possessions of the High Contracting Parties.

II

BOUNDARY AGREEMENT BETWEEN FRANCE AND THE CONGO FREE STATE, AUGUST 14, 1894

Art. I.—The frontier between the Congo Free State and the colony of French Congo, after following the thalweg of the Oubanghi up to the confluence of the Mbomou and the Ouelle [Welle], shall be constituted as follows :—(1) The thalweg of the Mbomou up to its source. (2) A straight line joining the watershed between the Congo and Nile basins. From this point the frontier of the Free State is constituted by the said watershed up to its intersection with longitude 30° east of Greenwich ($27^{\circ} 40'$ E., Paris).

Art. IV.—The Free State binds herself to renounce all

occupation, and to exercise in the future no political influence west or north of a line thus determined :—Longitude 30° E. of Greenwich ($27^{\circ} 40'$ E., Paris), starting from its intersection of the watershed of the Congo and Nile basins, up to the point where it meets the parallel $5^{\circ} 30'$, and then along that parallel to the Nile.

III

DECLARATION OF MARCH 21, 1899, WITH ART. IX OF THE CONVENTION BETWEEN GREAT BRITAIN AND FRANCE OF JUNE 14, 1898 (SPHERES OF INFLUENCE IN CENTRAL AFRICA AND SUDAN)

The undersigned, duly authorized by their Governments, have signed the following Declaration :

The IVth Article of the Convention of the 14th June, 1898, shall be completed by the following provisions, which shall be considered as forming an integral part of it—

1. Her Britannic Majesty's Government engages not to acquire either territory or political influence to the west of the line of frontier defined in the following paragraph, and the Government of the French Republic engages not to acquire either territory or political influence to the east of the same line.

2. The line of frontier shall start from the point where the boundary between the Congo Free State and French territory meets the water-parting between the watershed of the Nile and that of the Congo and its affluents. It shall follow in principle that water-parting up to its intersection with the 11th parallel of north latitude. From this point it shall be drawn as far as the 15th parallel in such manner as to separate, in principle, the Kingdom of Wadai from what constituted in 1882 the Province of Darfur ; but it shall in no case be so drawn as to pass to the west beyond the 21st degree of longitude east of Greenwich ($18^{\circ} 40'$ east of Paris), or to the east beyond the 23rd degree of longitude east of Greenwich ($20^{\circ} 40'$ east of Paris).

3. It is understood, in principle, that to the north of the 15th parallel the French zone shall be limited to the north-east and east by a line which shall start from the point of intersection of the Tropic of Cancer with the 16th degree of longitude east of Greenwich ($13^{\circ} 40'$ east of Paris), shall run thence to the south-east until it meets the 24th degree of longitude east of Greenwich ($21^{\circ} 40'$ east of Paris), and shall then follow the 24th degree until it meets, to the north of the 15th parallel of latitude, the frontier of Darfur as it shall eventually be fixed.

4. The two Governments engage to appoint Commissioners who shall be charged to delimit on the spot a frontier-line in accordance with the indications given in paragraph 2 of this Declaration. The result of their work shall be submitted for the approbation of their respective Governments¹.

It is agreed that the provisions of Art. IX of the Convention of the 14th June, 1898, shall apply equally to the territories situated to the south of the 14° 20' parallel of north latitude, and to the north of the 5th parallel of north latitude between the 14° 20' meridian of longitude east of Greenwich (12th degree east of Paris) and the course of the Upper Nile.

Done at London, the 21st March, 1899.

SALISBURY. PAUL CAMBON. .

Art. IX of the Convention of June 14, 1898, provides that

Within the limits defined on Map No. 2, which is annexed to the present Protocol, British subjects and British protected persons and French citizens and French protected persons, as far as regards their persons and goods, and the merchandize the produce or the manufacture of Great Britain and France, their respective Colonies, possessions, and Protectorates, shall enjoy for thirty years from the date of the exchange of the ratifications of the Convention mentioned in Art. V the same treatment in all matters of river navigation, of commerce, and of tariff and fiscal treatment and taxes of all kinds.

Subject to this condition, each of the two Contracting Powers shall be free to fix, in its own territory, and as may appear to it most convenient, the tariff and fiscal treatment and taxes of all kinds.

In case neither of the two Contracting Powers shall have notified twelve months before the expiration of the above-mentioned term of thirty years its intention to put an end to the effects of the present Article, it shall remain in force until the expiration of one year from the day on which either of the Contracting Powers shall have denounced it.

IV

CONVENTION BETWEEN FRANCE AND SPAIN FOR THE DELIMITATION OF THEIR POSSESSIONS IN WEST AFRICA, JUNE 27, 1900

Art. IV.—La limite entre les possessions Françaises et Espagnoles sur la côte du Golfe de Guinée partira du point

¹ The frontier was delimited by the supplementary convention of September 8, 1919. See *Anglo-Egyptian Sudan*, No. 98 of this series, pp. 4 and 169.

d'intersection du thalweg de la Rivière Mouni avec une ligne droite tirée de la pointe Coco Beach à la pointe Diéké. Elle remontera ensuite le thalweg de la Rivière Mouni et celui de la Rivière Outemboni jusqu'au point où cette dernière rivière est coupée pour la première fois par le 1^{er} degré de latitude nord et se confondra avec ce parallèle jusqu'à son intersection avec le 9^e degré de longitude est de Paris (11° 20' est de Greenwich).

De ce point la ligne de démarcation sera formée par le dit méridien 9 est de Paris jusqu'à sa rencontre avec la frontière méridionale de la Colonie Allemande de Cameroun.

Art. VII.—Dans le cas où le Gouvernement Espagnol voudrait céder, à quelque titre que ce fût, en tout ou en partie, les possessions qui lui sont reconnues par les Arts. I et IV de la présente Convention, ainsi que les Iles Elobey et l'Île Corisco voisines du littoral du Congo Français, le Gouvernement Français jouira d'un droit de préférence dans des conditions semblables à celles qui seraient proposées au dit Gouvernement Espagnol.

V

CONVENTION BETWEEN GREAT BRITAIN AND FRANCE, APRIL 8, 1904

Art. VIII.—To the east of the Niger the following line shall be substituted for the boundary fixed between the French and British possessions by the Convention of the 14th June, 1898, subject to the modifications which may result from the stipulations introduced in the sixth and seventh paragraphs of the present Article.

Starting from the point on the left bank of the Niger laid down in Art. III of the Convention of the 14th June, 1898, that is to say, the median line of the Dallul Mauri, the frontier shall be drawn along this median line until it meets the circumference of a circle drawn from the town of Sokoto as a centre, with a radius of 160,932 metres (100 miles). Thence it shall follow the northern arc of this circle to a point situated 5 kilometres south of the point of intersection of the above-mentioned arc of the circle with the route from Dosso to Matankari via Maourédé.

Thence it shall be drawn in a direct line to a point 20 kilometres north of Konni (Birni-N'Kouni), and then in a direct line to a point 15 kilometres south of Maradi, and thence shall be continued in a direct line to the point of intersection of the parallel of 13° 20' north latitude with a meridian passing 70 miles to the east of the second intersection of the 14th

degree of north latitude and the northern arc of the above-mentioned circle.

Thence the frontier shall follow in an easterly direction the parallel of 13° 20' north latitude until it strikes the left bank of the River Komadugu Waubé (Komadougou Ouobé), the thalweg of which it will then follow to Lake Chad. But, if before meeting this river the frontier attains a distance of 5 kilometres from the caravan route from Zinder to Yo, through Sua Kololua (Soua Kololoua), Adeber, and Kabi, the boundary shall then be traced at a distance of 5 kilometres to the south of this route until it strikes the left bank of the River Komadugu Waubé (Komadougou Ouobé), it being nevertheless understood that, if the boundary thus drawn should happen to pass through a village, this village, with its lands, shall be assigned to the Government to which would fall the larger portion of the village and its lands. The boundary will then, as before, follow the thalweg of the said river to Lake Chad.

Thence it will follow the degree of latitude passing through the thalweg of the mouth of the said river up to its intersection with the meridian running 35' east of the centre of the town of Kouka, and will then follow this meridian southwards until it intersects the southern shore of Lake Chad.

It is agreed, however, that, when the Commissioners of the two Governments at present engaged in delimiting the line laid down in Art. IV of the Convention of the 14th June, 1898, return home and can be consulted, the two Governments will be prepared to consider any modifications of the above frontier line which may seem desirable for the purpose of determining the line of demarcation with greater accuracy. In order to avoid the inconvenience to either party which might result from the adoption of a line deviating from recognized and well-established frontiers, it is agreed that in those portions of the projected line where the frontier is not determined by the trade routes, regard shall be had to the present political divisions of the territories so that the tribes belonging to the territories of Tessaoua-Maradi and Zinder shall, as far as possible, be left to France, and those belonging to the territories of the British zone shall, as far as possible, be left to Great Britain.

It is further agreed that, on Lake Chad, the frontier line shall, if necessary, be modified so as to assure to France a communication through open water at all seasons between her possessions on the north-west and those on the south-east of the Lake, and a portion of the surface of the open waters of the Lake at least proportionate to that assigned to her by the map forming Annex 2 of the Convention of the 14th June, 1898.

In that portion of the River Komadugu which is common to both parties, the populations on the banks shall have equal rights of fishing.

VI

CONVENTION BETWEEN FRANCE AND GERMANY RELATING TO
THEIR POSSESSIONS IN EQUATORIAL AFRICA, NOVEMBER 4,
1911

ARTICLE I

France cedes to Germany the territories of which the boundaries are fixed as follows: the frontier will start from the Atlantic coast to a point to be determined upon on the eastern bank of the Bay of Monda towards the mouth of the Massolie; proceeding towards the north-east the frontier will oblique towards the south-east angle of Spanish Guinea; it will cut the Ivondo river at its confluence with the Djoua river, will follow that river as far as Madjinga (which will remain French), and from that point will be directed eastwards to end at the confluence of the N'Goko and of the Sangha to the north of Ouessou; the frontier will then start from the Sangha river to a point situate to the south of Ouessou (which will remain French) to a distance of six kilometres at least and twelve kilometres at the most from this locality according to local geographical conditions; the frontier will oblique towards the south-west to rejoin the valley of the Kandeko until its confluence with the Bokida; it will descend the latter and the Likouala as far as the right bank of the Congo river; it will follow the Congo river to the mouth of the Sangha and in such a way as to occupy on the Congo river the extent of from six to twelve kilometres which will be determined according to geographical conditions; the frontier will ascend the Sangha as far as the Likouala *aux herbes*, which it will then follow to Botungo; it will then proceed from the south to the north in almost a straight line as far as Bera N'Goko; it will then inflect in the direction of the confluence of the Bodingue and of the Lobay and will descend the course of the Lobay as far as the Ubanghi to the north of Mongoumba; on the right bank of the Ubanghi and following the local geographical conditions the German territory will be determined in such a way as to extend over a space of six kilometres at least and twelve kilometres at most; the frontier will then oblique towards the north-west in order to attain the River Pama at a point to be determined on the west of its confluence with the Mbi, will ascend the valley of the Pama and will then rejoin the eastern Logone about the spot where this river meets the eighth

parallel at the elevation of Gore ; the frontier will then follow the course of the Logone towards the north until its confluence with the Shari.

ARTICLE II

Germany cedes to France the territories situate north of the actual frontier of the French possessions in the Chad territories and comprised between the Shari on the east and the Logone on the west.

ARTICLE IX

France and Germany, desiring to confirm their good relations in their possessions in Central Africa, undertake not to erect any fortified work along the rivers which serve for common navigation. This undertaking will not apply to works of mere defence erected to protect the stations against native attacks.

ARTICLE X

The French and German Governments will come to an understanding for the works to be executed in view to facilitate the navigation of boats and craft on the water-courses whose navigation will be common to both.

ARTICLE XI

In the case of stoppage of navigation on the Congo or the Ubanghi, liberty of passage will be assured to France and to Germany on the territories belonging to either nation at the points where the latter touch the rivers.

ARTICLE XII

The Governments of France and Germany renew the declarations contained in the Act of Berlin of 26th February, 1885, and ensure the commercial liberty and freedom of navigation on the Congo and the affluents of that river, as on those of the Niger. In consequence, German goods in transit across French territory situate on the west of the Ubanghi and French goods in transit across the territories ceded to Germany or following the routes indicated in Article VIII will be free of all duty. An accord concluded between the two Governments will determine the conditions of this transit and the points of penetration.

ARTICLE XVI

In the event of the territorial status of the Conventional Basin of the Congo such as it has been described by the Act of Berlin of 26th February, 1885, being modified through one or other of the contracting parties, the latter must confer between them, as also between the other Powers signatory to the Act of Berlin.

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MAP

The territory is covered by a map 'Afrique Équatoriale Française', by Emmanuel Barralier, printed by Millet, Paris, and published (1913) by Larose, 11 Rue Victor Cousin, Paris. It is on the scale 1 : 5,000,000.

FRENCH SOMALILAND

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I. GEOGRAPHY PHYSICAL AND POLITICAL

(1) POSITION AND FRONTIERS

FRENCH SOMALILAND, on the eastern coast of Africa, lies round the Gulf of Tajura, at the head of the Gulf of Aden, just outside the Strait of Bab el-Mandeb, between $10^{\circ} 55'$ and $12^{\circ} 45'$ north latitude and $41^{\circ} 45'$ and $43^{\circ} 25'$ east longitude. It marches on the north with Eritrea, on the west and south with Abyssinia, and on the south-east with British Somaliland, and has an area of about 5,800 square miles.

Starting from the point of Ras Dumeira at the northern entrance to the Strait of Bab el-Mandeb the boundary of the colony runs in a south-westerly direction to Bisidira on the Weima water-course, which it follows as far as Daddato, the extreme point of the delimitation of 1901. The boundary appears to run roughly south-west for about 40 miles and then some 10 miles north-west before touching the Abyssinian frontier. The boundary between French territory and Abyssinian starts in a south-westerly direction running to Deimuli and Lake Ali, thence more directly south to Mergada and Lake Abde Bad (Abbe, Abhe), and finally by way of Airoli, Gobad, and Rahale to Jallelo, the last section running almost due east. At Jallelo the boundary reaches British territory, and proceeds in a north-north-easterly direction to the coast at Loyi Ada.

Lake Asal, which lies within French territory, is recognized as a 'heritage of the Empire of Ethiopia'.

The Abyssinian frontier line has never been demarcated, and it is uncertain whether Lakes Ali and Abde Bad, in whole or in part, are included in French Somali-

land. The boundaries of the colony are almost entirely artificial and have no connexion with the ethnographical divisions of the territories through which they pass.

By its position at the entrance of the Red Sea, French Somaliland commands all trade routes passing through the Suez Canal.

(2) SURFACE, COAST, AND RIVER SYSTEM

Surface

The coastal region is fairly well known, as is the interior in the south-eastern part of the colony, towards the Jibuti-Addis Abbaba railway, and in the neighbourhood of Lake Asal; but the rest of the colony, never having been explored, has been described only from native reports and from such facts as could be observed by travellers in the coastal region.

The Gulf of Tajura and its inlet, the Ghubbet el-Kharab, traverse half the centre of the country in an east-west direction. North of the Gulf of Tajura, and west of the Ghubbet el-Kharab, the interior rises from the coastal region towards the west to unite with the high mountains of the Shoan plateau (altitude about 8,000 ft.) of Abyssinia.

It appears that the hinterland does not contain any considerable water-courses, plateaux, or other marked natural features, but is simply a broken mountainous country, which rises in the south to an altitude of some thousands of feet, and is traversed by a few unimportant water-courses, whose general direction is from south to north. The lower or northern parts of this hilly country, for a distance which may extend to 40 miles or thereabouts from the coast, are almost bare of vegetation and contain little else but sparse, stunted acacias and some patches of coarse grass. It is said that on the higher spurs there is abundant vegetation with good

grazing grounds, and that there is plenty of perennial water in the streams descending from them: this is uncertain, but the statement is to some extent borne out by the fact that the upper slopes of Mount Guda (altitude 5,495 ft.) can be seen from the coast to be clothed with trees and bush. Near Lake Asal and the western end of the Ghubbet el-Kharab there are bare, precipitous, low hills of volcanic formation, which appear to extend southwards to the Abyssinian frontier and to Lake Abde Bad, in which the great River Hawash, flowing from Abyssinia, loses itself. To the east of these volcanic hills and south of the Gulf of Tajura, as far as the British and Abyssinian frontiers, the interior country, which lies some hundreds of feet above sea-level, is a stony, undulating plain, intersected by water-courses and broken in places by low hills and ridges; most of it is almost bare of vegetation, but along the British frontier there is a good deal of low thorn-bush.

At the foot of the interior hilly country, and stretching along almost the whole length of the coast, is a desert of coralline sand, whose surface is broken here and there by low isolated hills. This tract varies in width from a few hundred yards to about twenty miles; in some places it slopes gently down to the sea, in others it terminates in steep cliffs of hard sand.

Coast

The coast-line is about 180 miles in length; it runs from Ras Dumeira 67 miles to the headland of Ras el-Bir and then opens out into the Gulf of Tajura, a great inlet penetrating about 50 miles to the west, with a coast-line of 103 miles. From the town of Jibuti, at the southern headland of the gulf, it is about 30 miles across to Ras el-Bir, and about 12 miles along the coast to Loyi Ada on the British frontier.

Most of the coast outside the Gulf has a low sandy shore, covered with mangroves and bush in some places, but bare as a rule; part of it consists of sand cliffs from 100 to 400 or 500 ft. in height. There are no bays of any importance, and the only headlands that require notice are those of Ras Dumeira, Ras Siyan, nearly 21 miles south-east of it, and Ras el-Bir; there is no good anchorage at any of these places, although there is a small harbour at the first, and two small coves at the second, where there is landing. Most of the coast is lined with reefs. There is also an island off Ras Dumeira, with anchorage in southerly winds, and a group of seven islands (known as 'The Seven Brothers') off Ras Siyan, where also there is anchorage.

In the Gulf of Tajura, about 4 miles west of Ras el-Bir, is the town of Obok, and some 30 miles farther to the west Tajura. At the head of the gulf, and joined to it by two narrow channels, lies the Ghubbet el-Kharab, an inlet about 5 miles long and $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles wide. From the Ghubbet el-Kharab the coast runs east to the Bay and port of Jibuti. The coast of the gulf is precipitous; in places along the north shore the mountains of the interior approach the sea and the cliffs are from 100 to 400 ft. in height. There are various headlands and bays in the gulf of no particular importance except in so far as they furnish anchorages, as at Obok, Ras Duan, Dallai, Mersa Duan, and elsewhere, though most of these can only be used in certain winds. The best of all these anchorages is Étoile, one of several in the Ghubbet el-Kharab; here large vessels are sheltered from all winds. The Bay of Jibuti is protected from the west and north, and affords excellent anchorage, with a railway pier and a jetty, at the former of which there is, or soon will be, accommodation for large vessels. Throughout the gulf there is deep water close to the shore, and few reefs.

River System

There are no perennial rivers in the colony, and the water-courses appear to contain running water throughout their lengths only on the rare occasions when they are in flood. North of the spur coming from the Shoan plateau to Mount Guda the drainage of the country seems to go north to the Weima water-course, or to several other water-courses which flow into the Gulf of Aden and whose existence is more or less problematical ; on the other hand, it has been said that as a rule the water-courses in the interior have no outlet to the sea, and this appears to be the case with the drainage area of Lake Halol. A similar phenomenon seems to exist in the case of the drainage area of the southern part of the colony, whose water-courses fall towards Galamo or Lake Asal. In this connexion it may be noted that there is reason to suppose that the River Hawash, which now loses itself in Lake Abde Bad, originally emptied itself into the Ghubbet el-Kharab *via* Lake Asal ; it has been suggested that it no longer does so because the levels of the country between Lake Abde Bad and the sea have been changed by volcanic convulsions.

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(3) CLIMATE

Little is known about the climate of the colony. Certain observations were recorded at Jibuti from 1900 to 1914, of which some are available, and there is some casual information about Obok ; but nothing definite is known about the interior.

At Jibuti there are two seasons : the summer from May to September inclusive, when the south-west monsoon blows, and the winter, the remaining seven months of the year, which is the period of the north-east monsoon. There is a good deal of irregularity

about the arrival and departure of these monsoons, and the south-west monsoon has been known to fail entirely.

In the summer the south-west monsoon usually blows during the morning, attaining its full strength at noon ; it is replaced in the afternoon by the *khamsein*, a very hot, dry wind, which comes across the desert from the north-west. As a rule the *khamsein* dies away at night, but it may continue for three or four days without interruption ; it is most noticeable during July and August. In the winter the north-east monsoon brings a fairly steady, cool wind, which rises about 10 a.m. and continues until nightfall ; at this season, especially towards the latter part of it, there is sometimes a cool land breeze at night and in the early morning.

The mean shade temperature for 8 years was 86° F. (30° C.), and during a period of 3 years the summer and winter means were 91° F. (32.5° C.) and 81° F. (27° C.) respectively. In the summer, over a period of 5 years, the mean daily maximum and minimum shade temperatures were 94° F. (34.5° C.) and 86° F. (30° C.) respectively, while for 12 years the mean monthly maximum and minimum temperatures were 100° F. (38° C.) and 82° F. (28° C.). In the winter, during 5 years, the mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures were 83° F. (28.5° C.) and 77 F. (25° C.), and for 3 years the mean monthly maximum and minimum temperatures were 88° F. (31° C.) and 79° F. (26° C.).

The average annual rainfall at Jibuti during a period of 12 years was 4.6 inches (117 mm.), and in 5 of these years, with an average fall of 4.3 inches (109 mm.), 1.6 inches (41 mm.) fell in the summer and 2.7 inches (68 mm.) in the winter. In 8 years there were, on an average, 18 days a year on which an appreciable amount of rain fell. From the record of

5 consecutive years it appears that February, March, April, and October are the most rainy months ; but it is stated by more than one authority that the rains are very irregular in their character, sometimes occurring in very violent bursts. Thus, in 1910, 7.9 inches (200 mm.) are recorded as having fallen during 3 consecutive days in March, the total rainfall of the year having been 9.4 inches (239 mm.).

At Obok, and inland along the north coast of the Gulf of Tajura, the climate appears to be very similar to that of Jibuti, but it is said to be drier and hotter ; and this seems probable, at all events during the summer, since at Jibuti the *khamsein* is tempered by its passage across the gulf. When the *khamsein* is blowing the shade temperature at Obok is said to vary between 100° F. (38° C.) and 115° F. (46° C.), but 122° F. (50° C.) has been recorded there. The rain is said to fall almost entirely during the winter, and it is said that there are short, severe storms rather than regular rains. Another authority writing of these storms says that in the interior they occur usually during August and September.

(4) SANITARY CONDITIONS

The climate is not unhealthy for Europeans, sun-stroke being the only serious danger to which they are exposed ; it is said, however, that they become anaemic after more than two years' residence in the country. As regards the diseases to which natives living in the interior are exposed little is known, although malaria and syphilis are said to be common. On the coast pulmonary affections are fairly common, and syphilis is said to be increasing ; other maladies are ophthalmia, diphtheria, affections of the liver, a mild type of malaria, tuberculosis, small-pox, dysentery, and conjunctivitis,

none of which are endemic nor, except the last, have any been known to occur in epidemic form. There has been no cholera since 1902, and sleeping-sickness is not mentioned by any authority.

(5) RACE AND LANGUAGE

There are two distinct native races inhabiting the colony, the Danakil and the Issa Somalis, of whom the latter occupy the country lying south of the Gulf of Tajura and of a line running in a south-westerly direction from the Ghubbet el-Kharab to the Abyssinian frontier, while the former occupy the rest of the territory. It has been said that some Galla tribes extend from the Shoan plateau into French Somaliland, but this is probably incorrect.

The Danakil, known to the Somalis as Afar and to the Gallas as Adal, inhabit a territory which extends far north into Eritrea and south and west into Abyssinia. They are divided into two sections, the Adoimara and the Asaimara, of whom the former are descended from the original Arab invaders of the country and the latter from Abyssinians who partly conquered the descendants of the Arabs and then amalgamated with them, becoming the patricians of the country. The Danakil, however, appear to be mostly Adoimara, except perhaps in the neighbourhood of the west-central and north-west frontiers. The Issa Somalis belong to the Hawiya section of the Somali race and are Hamites.

The language of both the Danakil and the Issa Somalis is derived from Galla, but both peoples, especially the latter, have borrowed largely from Arabic, although Arabic is not now understood by them. Neither language is written.

(6) POPULATION

Distribution

The nomad population has been estimated at 200,000 or about 33 to the square mile, a figure which probably is far too high. In 1913 there were nearly 17,000 inhabitants in Jibuti, of whom 585 were Europeans, while the rest consisted of about 1,500 Danakil, 3,500 Issa Somalis (all French subjects), nearly 6,000 Somalis and Abyssinians (foreign subjects), over 5,000 Arabs, and 150 Indians. Obok, formerly the capital of the colony, now has a population of about 300 Danakil; Tajura has 500 or 600 Danakil; and Gobad has 700 or 800 Somalis. There are no other towns in the country and, so far as is known, hardly any villages.

Movement

Nothing is known as to any alteration which may be occurring in the numbers of the natives; probably, as in British Somaliland, the life they lead is so hard that only the fittest survive, and, even in the absence of epidemic diseases and with intertribal fighting reduced by French control, it is unlikely that they increase much. Moreover an authority states that they have very small families.

Migrations are unknown in the colony except in so far as the inhabitants, being nomad shepherds, move frequently from one part of the country to another. Some Abyssinians and Gallas come to the coast every year to trade, but they do not remain for more than a few weeks. Of the Arabs who live in Jibuti and its vicinity over 2,000 are men who have come there for work in connexion with the railway and the port, or as market-gardeners at Ambuli; most of them have brought their families with them, but probably do not intend to settle in the country.

II. POLITICAL HISTORY

CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY

- 1862. Cession of Obok by Danakil chiefs.
- 1884-5. Treaties of protection with Sultans of Tajura and Gobad and chiefs of the Issa Somalis ; formation of Colony and Protectorate.
- 1888. Boundary arrangement with Great Britain.
- 1889. Italian protectorate claimed over Abyssinia.
- 1892. Transfer of head-quarters to Jibuti, and growing cordiality of relations between Menelik and France.
- 1894. Concession for railway to Harrar granted to Alfred Ilg.
- 1896. French Government approves construction of railway. Defeat of Italians at Adowa. Italian protectorate abandoned.
- 1897. Boundary treaty between Menelik and France.
- 1900-1. Boundary treaty between France and Italy.
- 1902. France undertakes to subsidize the railway company, and obtains control of it.
- 1904-5. French, British, and Italian rivalry over question of railway construction.
- 1906. Anglo-Franco-Italian treaty regulates relations with Ethiopia.
- 1915. Railway reaches Addis Abbaba.

(1) ACQUISITION OF TERRITORY BY FRANCE

FRENCH activity on the Somali coast dates from 1856, when M. Lambert, then consular agent at Aden, was instructed to make inquiries as to the possibility of securing territory for a French station in the vicinity of Aden. He suggested the acquisition of Obok ; and, by a treaty of March 11, 1862, the Danakil chiefs ceded to France, for a payment of 50,500 francs, the harbour of Obok, with the adjacent plain. In 1864 a survey of the harbour was made ; but France was too much pre-

occupied with other interests to devote any attention to the coast.¹ The revival of French activity, which occurred in 1883, was apparently due to two causes: the occupation by Italy of Assab rendered it possible that the trade of Ethiopia, the main object of interest, might be diverted permanently into Italian hands, while in the war with Tonkin France found a coaling station desirable, as facilities at Aden were denied on grounds of neutrality. On April 9, 1884, a treaty was made with the Sultan of Gobad, which placed his foreign relations under French control. On September 21 M. Lagarde obtained from the Sultan of Tajura the cession of his territory from Ras Ali, the southern limit mentioned in the Treaty of 1862, to the Ghubbet-el-Kharab, the French undertaking not to interfere with the laws of the country.

A treaty of August 19, 1840, between the Sultan and the East India Company had bound Tajura not to make treaties with any foreign Power without consulting the Government of Aden; but no protest was made by the British Government against the treaty with Tajura, which was notified to them on February 11, 1885. The treaty was fortified by two acts of surrender, one of October 18, 1884, by the Sultan of Tajura, and one of December 14 by that chief and by the Sultan of Gobad. On January 2, 1885, the Sultan of Gobad accepted a protectorate, and this course was also followed by the chiefs of the Issa Somalis on March 26. These gains were consolidated by the enactment of a French law of August 12, 1885, for the erection of a Colony of Obok, and a Protectorate over Tajura and the adjacent territories. It now became necessary to fix a limit between the British² and French spheres, and

¹ A notification of December 25, 1880, expressly stated that no sovereignty had ever been exercised, and that no concessions could be granted.

² See *British Somaliland and Sokotra*, No. 97 of this series.

this was done by the exchange of Notes of February 29, 1888, which fixed the boundary at a line from Hadou *via* Abassouen, Bia-Kabouba, and Zeyla, to Harrar, which neither Power was to annex.

(2) FRANCE AND ETHIOPIA

Fortunately for France, Menelik, Emperor of Ethiopia, was at this time extremely anxious to rid himself of the restriction on his freedom of action which was imposed by the quasi-protectorate claimed by Italy under the Treaty of May 2, 1889, and he soon displayed readiness to make use of French support against any possibility of further encroachments by Italy. In 1892 the decisive step was taken of transferring the head-quarters of the French administration from Obok to Jibuti, Menelik offering to construct a series of wells along the trade route which he desired to see established to that port. From 1893 relations became more cordial, as the Emperor's dislike for Italy increased. Russia showed her support of France by sending, in 1895, an expedition of exploration to Obok with instructions to proceed to Abyssinia, with which country Italy was then at war. The war ended in the following year in Baratieri's defeat at Adowa (March 1), and in the renunciation by Italy, under the Treaty of October 29, 1896, of the claim to exercise a protectorate. Concessions of March 9, 1894, and November 5, 1896, permitted Alfred Ilg, a Swiss engineer, and L. Chefneux, a French explorer, to construct a railway connecting Ethiopia with Jibuti; and the French Colonial Minister's decisions of April 27, 1896, and September 16, 1897, authorized the construction of that portion of the line which traversed the French Protectorate. The frontier was also settled by a Convention of March 20, 1897, as running from Jallelo on the Franco-British boundary to Dumeira, on the north (the limit fixed by the

Treaty of 1862), an extension of no more than 60 kilometres inland being thus permitted.

With Italy a boundary settlement was made in Protocols of January 24, 1900, and July 10, 1901, which fixed the boundary as from Dumeira to Bisidiro on the Weima, and then up the stream to Daddato. In the meantime the railway company formed in 1896 had been making progress, but, in the course of 1901, came to the end of the 18 millions of francs of capital which it had raised. To prevent the enterprise falling into foreign hands, the French Government guaranteed it a subvention of 500,000 francs for a period of 50 years, and by December 1902, the line to Dire-Dawa was completed (310 kilometres).¹

(3) THE ANGLO-FRANCO-ITALIAN AGREEMENT OF DECEMBER 13, 1906

It was obvious that the completion of the railway from Dire-Dawa to Addis Abbaba, and thence to the White Nile, which was contemplated in the concession of 1894, though that concession actually applied only to the first section of the line to Harrar, would affect in a serious measure interests other than those of France. By the Treaty of May 15, 1902, Great Britain had obtained from Menelik the right to construct a railway to connect Uganda and the Sudan through Abyssinian territory, and on August 28, 1904, she obtained a further concession for the construction of a line from Somaliland to the Sudan. On the other hand, the Emperor, in accordance with the spirit of the concession of 1894, informed the French representative on August 4, 1904, that the company might proceed with the line to Addis Abbaba, leaving the terms to be settled later. Meanwhile, Italy was as anxious as ever to

¹ The history of the Jibuti railway is more fully dealt with in *Abyssinia*, No. 129 of this series.

secure railway connexion between Eritrea and her share of Somaliland, and Menelik, importuned by representatives of the three Powers, declared that, failing agreement among them, he would himself undertake the completion of the line.¹

Finally, a compromise was arrived at in the agreement of December 13, 1906, which asserted the intention of the three Powers to preserve the *status quo* in Abyssinia, and, if it were disturbed, to co-operate in order to safeguard (a) the interests of Great Britain and Egypt in the Nile basin,² more especially as regards the regulation of the waters of that river and its tributaries (due consideration being paid to local interests), without prejudice to Italian interests mentioned in paragraph (b); (b) the interests of Italy in Ethiopia as regards Eritrea and Somaliland (including the Benadir), more especially with reference to the hinterland of her possessions, and to the territorial connexion between them to the west of Addis Abbaba; and (c) the interests of France in Ethiopia as regards the French Protectorate on the Somali coast, the hinterland of this Protectorate, and the zone necessary for the construction and working of the railway from Jibuti to Addis Abbaba. It was agreed that the line to Addis Abbaba should be continued by the French company; that the French Government was to secure the appointment of British, Italian, and Abyssinian representatives on the board of directors; that all nations should receive identical treatment as regards trade and transit on the railway and at Jibuti; and that no transit duties should be charged. A branch

¹ See *La Dépêche coloniale*, May 18, 1905.

² By Article III of the Treaty of May 15, 1902, Menelik undertook not to construct or allow to be constructed any work across the Blue Nile, Lake Tsana, or the Sobat which would arrest the flow of the waters into the Nile, except in agreement with the British and Sudanese Governments.

line to Harrar was also sanctioned. The British right to undertake any construction west of Addis Abbaba, for which foreign aid might be needed, was conceded, as well as the right to use the concession for a line from British Somaliland to the Sudan, after arrangement with France and Italy ; and the Italian right to join Benadir and Eritrea was admitted, subject to similar conditions as to the constitution of the directorate and equality of treatment. The agreement was followed by the steady construction of the line, which has now reached the capital.

III. SOCIAL AND POLITICAL CONDITIONS

(1) RELIGIOUS

THE Somalis under French control, being mainly of the coastal region, belong to the stricter class of Mohammedans ; but there are also temporarily resident in the territory a considerable number of Abyssinians, who profess a singularly corrupt form of Christianity. The limited extent of the French territory, and the existence of the railway, minimize the probability of serious difficulties with fanatical Mohammedans, such as have been a great source of trouble in the British, and, in a less degree, in the Italian sphere.

(2) POLITICAL

By the decree of May 20, 1896, the French Colony of Obok and its dependencies and the Protectorate over Tajura were given the collective title of *Côte française des Somalis*. The administration is on the model of that in West Africa, by a Governor assisted by a Council of Administration, which must be consulted in financial matters, and may be consulted on other questions. The finance of the territory is, as usual, under the minute control of a Treasury staff, which is largely independent of the Governor, in accordance with the normal French colonial regime, under the Presidential decree of December 30, 1912. Legislative power rests with the French Legislature or with the President ; but the Governor has a wide power of issuing *arrêtés*, which serve many of the purposes of laws. The administration of the Protectorate is in the

nature of political surveillance, and the tribes are allowed to settle their internal affairs largely in accordance with their own legal system.

(3) EDUCATIONAL

Education is regulated by an *arrêté* of the Governor of April 12, 1913, which provides (a) for primary education, consisting as usual of instruction in the French language, elementary natural science in its practical application, history, and geography; and (b) for professional education to prepare youths for minor posts in the Governmental service, and for various forms of manual labour. Education is free and unsectarian.

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS

The general attitude of the population of the Protectorate towards French rule appears to be one of acquiescence, due to the avoidance by the French authorities of any energetic interference with the habits of the tribes and to the toleration of their religion, and promoted in the past by the good relations existing between Menelik and France, which gave no encouragement to discontent in the zone of French influence.

IV. ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

(A) MEANS OF COMMUNICATION

(1) INTERNAL

Railway

APART from the Abyssinia Railway, the internal communications of the colony are of small importance. A company was formed in 1896 to undertake the construction of the railway from Jibuti; its capital, partly subscribed in Britain, now amounts to 22,000,000 francs. The line reached the Abyssinian capital, Addis Abbaba, on May 21, 1915.

The length of the line constructed and now working is 492 miles, of which only 56 miles are in French territory. The total cost represents a capital outlay of about £4,000,000. During the year 1915, when only 382 miles were open for traffic, the profits exceeded the expenses by no less than 1,700,000 francs. The gauge of the railway is one metre.

(2) EXTERNAL

(a) Ports

For external communications the colony depends entirely on the port of Jibuti. Obok, the former capital, has a fairly good, though somewhat restricted natural harbour, which is now practically deserted.

The port of Jibuti, which is really an open roadstead, lacks the facilities necessary for dealing with the increasing Abyssinian traffic. The French Chamber, however, at the beginning of 1916 voted a sum of 5,000,000 francs for the construction of a breakwater, quay, and dock. The anchorage space is now about a square mile in extent. Some twelve lighters, of 40-100 tons capacity, are available for loading and

discharging cargo. The stock of coal stored at the port amounts usually to about 15,000 tons, owned partly by the Compagnie de l'Afrique but mainly by the Messageries Maritimes.

Apart from its importance as an outlet for the commerce of the Abyssinian regions, Jibuti is becoming increasingly prominent as a port of call for vessels passing to and from the Mediterranean.

(b) Shipping

In 1913, 407 vessels with a tonnage of 945,156 entered and cleared at Jibuti. Of these 226 were French and 81 English, the remainder being German, Russian, Austrian, Italian, and Dutch. The number fell to 359 in 1914, 255 in 1915, and 249 in 1916. The tonnages discharged and cleared in the years 1913-16 are recorded as follows in the *Bulletins de l'Office Coloniale* :

	1913.	1914.	1915.	1916.
Tonnage discharged .	98,254	88,963	55,280	81,799
Tonnage cleared .	62,384	61,551	51,743	—

Before the war, ships of the Messageries Maritimes touched regularly at Jibuti ; other lines whose vessels called were the Compagnie Havraise Péninsulaire, the Chargeurs Réunis, the Bucknall Steamship Line, the Strick Line, the West Hartlepool Steam Navigation Company, the Hamburg-America Line, the Austrian Lloyd, the Russian Steam Navigation & Trading Company, the Russian Volunteer Fleet, and the Rotterdamsche Lloyd. The Compagnie de l'Afrique Orientale and Messrs. Cowasji, Dinshaw Bros. had services between Jibuti and Aden.

From the outbreak of war the German and Austrian, and one, if not both, of the Russian services, were suspended. The Marittima Italiana instituted a regular

service about the end of 1915, and a Japanese company, the Mitsui Bussan Kaisha, appears on the list for 1916.

(c) *Telegraph and Telephone*

Jibuti is connected by telephone and telegraph with Harrar and Addis Abbaba, and by cable with Obok and Perim.

(B) INDUSTRY

(1) *Agriculture*

French official reports recognize explicitly that there are no great developments possible for local agriculture or other industries. An attempt to introduce the date-palm in the neighbourhood of Jibuti has been fairly successful. Cotton-growing was a complete failure, and has been abandoned. The water-supply is sufficient to enable fruit and vegetables to be grown in plenty for local requirements, but in the absence of perennial rivers and the uncertainty as to the volume of the underground supply, irrigation on any considerable scale seems to be scarcely possible. The flocks and herds of the natives furnish them with means of subsistence, and supply Jibuti with abundance of meat and milk.

(2) *Fisheries*

Along the coast considerable activity is shown in fishing both for sea-fish and for mother-of-pearl.

(3) *Minerals*

At Lake Asal the colony possesses an apparently inexhaustible reservoir of salt, which has been worked by Europeans since 1912. In 1914 nearly 5,000 tons of salt were obtained, and in 1916 the output exceeded 8,000 metric tons. Most of this was exported to

Abyssinia, which offers a good market and has a treaty right to purchase such quantities as it requires for its own needs.

(C) COMMERCE

The trade of the colony shows a steady increase, temporarily arrested in the first two years of war.

IMPORTS

	<i>From France.</i>	<i>From French colonies.</i>	<i>From other countries.</i>	<i>Total.</i>
	<i>Francs.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
1900	2,332,334	19,719	4,762,204	7,114,257
1910	5,240,979	29,524	15,754,209	21,024,712
1913	7,832,024	122,724	25,962,095	33,916,843
1914	3,967,281	270,119	24,454,745	28,692,145
1915	1,400,849	44,231	22,661,150	24,106,230
1916	3,055,974	293,697	35,889,185	39,238,856

EXPORTS

	<i>To France.</i>	<i>To French colonies.</i>	<i>To other countries.</i>	<i>Total.</i>
	<i>Francs.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
1900	432,163	20,273	3,015,570	3,468,006
1910	3,339,660	479,184	29,748,043	33,566,887
1913	3,560,960	626,217	43,516,971	47,704,148
1914	3,447,067	446,078	39,750,070	43,643,215
1915	5,004,213	381,503	35,610,323	40,996,039
1916	9,617,116	530,488	41,477,551	51,625,155

The chief imports are cotton stuffs, railway material and rolling stock, coal, and food-stuffs. During the war the import of railway material was greatly diminished, whereas a remarkable increase was recorded in imports of coal. The share of Britain and British colonies in the import trade was about one-half in pre-war years, but rose to three-fourths of the total for the three years 1914-16. About two-thirds of the imports were in transit to Abyssinia, and about one-fifth, chiefly coal sold to passing ships, was re-exported by sea.

Nearly all the exports come in transit from Abyssinia. The principal articles of export are hides, skins, and coffee; of less importance are ivory, beeswax, rubber, and civet.

Trading Firms.—The monopoly of the trade in sponges, coral, and mother-of-pearl has been granted to the firm of Marill, Allègre et Cie.

At Jibuti there are some twenty trading houses.

(D) FINANCE

(1) *Public Finance*

The position of the public finances of the colony before the war was eminently satisfactory. Every year since 1903 revenue had exceeded expenditure, and at the close of 1913 not only was there no public debt, but the accumulated balance, invested mainly in French Government and Colonial stock, stood at 2,913,990 francs. The annual grant in aid, made by the French Government, was gradually reduced from 200,000 francs in 1904 to nil in 1912. A sum of 500,000 francs, however, is still paid annually by the French Government on its guarantee of the loan raised by the old *Compagnie Impériale des Chemins de Fer Éthiopiens*.

The great bulk of the revenue is supplied by import and export duties, other indirect taxes, and harbour charges. The direct contributions, represented by licences and by hut and property taxes, produce the insignificant total of about 40,000 francs per annum. On the side of expenditure the chief items are the annual disbursement, as interest on the railway loan, of the Government subvention of 500,000 francs; the large but varying amounts voted for the construction of new public works; and the expenses of administration, of the public departments, and of the recently constituted *Garde Indigène*.

(2) *Banking*

A branch of the Banque de l'Indo-Chine is established at Jibuti.

(E) GENERAL REMARKS

The commercial value of the Somaliland coast is due almost entirely to the fact that Jibuti is the terminus of the railway to Addis Abbaba in Abyssinia, while it is also a convenient coaling station and port of call for vessels trading with the East, particularly with the French Asiatic possessions, and with Eastern Africa and Madagascar. Practically all the trade of the country passes through French hands. The Convention of 1906 secures equality of treatment for all nations at the port of Jibuti.

APPENDIX

I

AGREEMENT BETWEEN THE BRITISH AND FRENCH GOVERNMENTS WITH REGARD TO THE GULF OF TAJURA AND THE SOMALI COAST, FEB- RUARY 2-9, 1888

The Marquis of Salisbury to M. Waddington

Foreign Office, February 9, 1888.

M. l' Ambassadeur,

I have the honour to acknowledge the receipt of your Excellency's note of the 2nd instant, reciting the arrangement upon which we have agreed with regard to the respective rights of Great Britain and France in the Gulf of Tadjourra and on the Somali coast.

The provisions of this arrangement are as follows :

1. The Protectorates exercised, or to be exercised, by Great Britain and France shall be separated by a straight line starting from a point on the coast opposite to the wells of Hadou and passing through the said wells to Abassouen ; from Abassouen the line shall follow the caravan road as far as Bia-Kabouba, and from this latter point it shall follow the caravan road from Zeyla to Harrar, passing through Gildessa. It is expressly agreed that the use of the wells of Hadou shall be common to both parties.

2. Her Britannic Majesty's Government recognise the Protectorate of France over the coasts of the Gulf of Tadjourra, including the Group of the Mushah Islands and the Islet of Bab, situated in the gulf, as well as over the inhabitants, tribes, and fractions of tribes situated to the west of the line above mentioned..

The Government of the French Republic recognises the Protectorate of Great Britain over the coast to the east of the above line as far as Bender Ziadeh, as well as over the inhabitants, tribes, and fractions of tribes situated to the east of the same line.

3. The two Governments pledge themselves to abstain from taking any action or exercising any intervention, the Govern-

ment of the Republic to the east of the above line, Her Britannic Majesty's Government to the west of the same line.

4. The two Governments engage not to endeavour to annex Harrar, nor to place it under their Protectorate. In taking this engagement the two Governments do not renounce the right of opposing attempts by any other Power to acquire or assert any rights over Harrar.

5. It is expressly agreed that the caravan road from Zeyla to Harrar, by way of Gildessa, shall remain open in its entire extent to the commerce of the two nations, as well as to that of the natives.

6. The two Governments engage to take all necessary measures to prevent the slave-trade and the importation of gunpowder and arms in the territories subject to their authority.

7. The Government of Her Britannic Majesty engages to treat with consideration ('bienveillance') those persons, whether chiefs or members of the tribes placed under their Protectorate, who had previously adopted the French Protectorate. The Government of the Republic, on their part, take the same engagement with regard to the persons and tribes henceforth placed under their Protectorate.

I have the honour to state that the arrangement recited in your Excellency's note, of which the above is a textual translation, is accepted by Her Majesty's Government, and will be considered by them as binding upon the two countries from the present date.

In doing so, I will add, for the sake of record, that I understand the third clause of the Agreement to preclude the granting by either party of protection to natives within the Protectorate of the other party; and that I gathered in conversation that your Excellency concurred with me in that opinion.

I have, &c.,

SALISBURY.

II

CONVENTION BETWEEN FRANCE AND ABYSSINIA RELATIVE TO THE FRONTIER OF THE FRENCH COASTAL ZONE, MARCH 20, 1897

Entre Sa Majesté Ménélik II, Roi de Rois d'Éthiopie, et
Monsieur Lagarde, Ministre Plénipotentiaire, Représentant du
Gouvernement de la République Française, Officier de la

Légion d'Honneur, Grand-Croix de l'Ordre Impérial d'Éthiopie, il a été convenu ce qui suit :

La frontière de la zone côtière conservée par la France comme possession ou protectorat direct sera indiquée par une ligne partant de la frontière Franco-Anglaise à Djalelo, passant à Rahalé, Gobad, Airoli, le bord du lac Abbé, Mergada, le bord du lac Alli, et, de là, remontant par Daimuli et Adghéno Marci, puis gagnant Doumeirah par Ettaga en côtoyant Raheitah.

(Voir Carte de Chaurand, 1894.)

Il reste bien entendu qu'aucune Puissance étrangère ne pourra se prévaloir de cet arrangement pour s'immiscer sous quelque forme et quelque prétexte que ce soit dans les régions situées au delà de la zone côtière française.

Le lac Assal étant l'héritage de l'Empire d'Éthiopie, il est convenu qu'on ne défendra jamais de prendre dans ce Lac le sel destiné à l'Éthiopie et que l'arrangement qui a été fait avec une Compagnie au sujet du Lac Assal reste intact.

Écrit à Addis Abeba le 12 Mégabit, 1889 (20 mars, 1897).

LAGARDE.
MENELIK.

III

PROTOCOL FOR THE DELIMITATION OF THE FRENCH AND ITALIAN POSSESSIONS IN THE COASTAL REGION OF THE RED SEA AND THE GULF OF ADEN, JULY 10, 1901.

La Commission spéciale visée par l'Art. II du Protocole signé à Rome, le 24 Janvier, 1900, entre la France et l'Italie, au sujet de la frontière délimitant leurs possessions respectives dans la région côtière de la Mer Rouge et du Golfe d'Aden, ayant achevé, sur les lieux, le travail dont elle avait été chargée, et le dit Protocole devant maintenant être complété d'après les résultats de ce travail, les Soussignés, dûment autorisés à cet effet, ont stipulé ce qui suit :—

La ligne de frontière stipulée par l'Art. I du Protocole du 24 Janvier, 1900, a son point de départ à la pointe extrême du Ras Doumeirah ; elle s'identifie ensuite avec la ligne de partage des eaux du promontoire de ce nom : après quoi, à savoir après le parcours de $1\frac{1}{2}$ kilom., elle se dirige en ligne droite au point, sur le Weima, marqué Bisidiro dans la carte ci-annexée.

A partir de Bisidiro, la ligne se confond avec le thalweg du

Weima, en le remontant jusqu'à la localité que la carte ci-annexée dénomme Daddato, cette localité marquant ainsi le point extrême de la délimitation Franco-Italienne établie par le susdit Protocole du 24 Janvier, 1900.

En foi de quoi le présent Protocole a été dressé et signé en double exemplaire.

Fait à Rome, le 10 Juillet, 1901.

CAMILLE BARRÈRE, Ambassadeur de France.

PRINETTI, Ministre des Affaires Étrangères de
Sa Majesté le Roi d'Italie.

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MAP

French Somaliland is covered by the War Office Map G.S.G.S. 2394, scale 1 : 1,000,000, 1909.

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